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THE  
CRITICAL REVIEW:  
OR,  
Annals of Literature.

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BY  
A SOCIETY of GENTLEMEN.

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VOLUME the FORTY-NINTH.

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——— *Nothing extenuate,  
Nor set down aught in malice.*

SHAKSPEARE.

*Ploravere suis non respondere favorem  
Speratum meritis———*

HOR.

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# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *January*, 1780.

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*Political Annals of the present United Colonies, from their Settlement to the Peace of 1763: By George Chalmers, Esq. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Bowen.*

**H**ISTORICAL accounts of the colonies have been formerly published by various writers, who confining themselves entirely to a recital of facts, and those not always supported by the most authentic information, never traced the principles of policy, which it is the province of history to elucidate. In the work now before us, an extremely different, and far more interesting scene, is opened to the view. We there behold the progress of those states distinctly related from their earliest infancy, the origin and nature of their respective constitutions ascertained with precision, and the instructive connexion of causes and effects developed through all the consequential events in their government.

In the prosecution of this arduous undertaking, the author industriously searched for materials that had been either overlooked or disregarded by former writers. To supply that void, which had arisen from the difficulty of access to the provincial records, he studied the acts of assemblies, 'the truest of histories,' as he justly styles them, that often contradict, explain, or confirm, the general accounts. He likewise perused printed collections of state papers, before unattended to, which throw considerable light on many passages, hitherto dark and entangled. But unable, even with all those aids, to satisfy his own judgement, he formed the design of applying for access to the Plantation-office; which, having obtained, he had the pleasure

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sure to discover a rich mine of historic materials. He informs us, that such an ample repository of evidence, respecting the affairs of the colonies, was now laid open, as few nations possess, and is sufficient to gratify even the utmost desire of an antiquary.

In the former histories of the British colonies, the authors had injudiciously followed a geographical, and not a chronological arrangement, beginning with the northernmost colony, and thence proceeding regularly southward. Mr. Chalmers, however, has very properly taken a different course: he begins with the most ancient, and treats of the several colonies according to the order in which they were either planted or acquired. By this method, the progress of our colonization is not only displayed in its natural course, but the history of the earliest reflects light on all the subsequent provinces.

The author sets out with observing, that it cannot be affirmed of these colonies, as it is of European nations, that their origin is uncertain or known; that their ancient history is fabulous and dark; or that their original institutions have come down the current of time, loaded with the disputations of the antiquary. Our first acquaintance with those countries is traced to the expedition of Cabot, who was employed by Henry VII. to explore the North American coast. Elizabeth granted some patents of colonization, but no settlements were made till the reign of her successor, who seems to have been actuated with a strong desire of carrying those projects into execution. On the 6th of April, 1606, he therefore granted letters patent, under the great seal, to sir Thomas Gates, and his associates, for settling a colony in Virginia. All those territories in America, which either belonged to that monarchy, or were not then possessed by any Christian prince or people, lying between the 34th and 45th degrees of northern latitude, were conferred on them. The colonists were divided, at their own desire, into two companies. One, consisting of adventurers of the city of London, was called the first colony; and the other, composed of merchants of Bristol, and other western towns, was named the second. The former was required to establish its settlement between the 34th and 41st degrees of latitude; the latter between the 38th and 45th degrees; yet so that the colony which should be last formed, shall not be planted within one hundred miles of the prior establishment.

The adventurers were empowered to transport thither so many English subjects as should willingly accompany them, with provision for their use, and arms for their defence, without payment of customs for seven years. It was declared, that the colonists and their children should at all times enjoy the same liberties,

ties, within any other dominions of that prince, as if they had remained or were born within the realm. Yet, for the better government of the emigrants, there was established for each of the projected settlements, a council, consisting of thirteen, which were to be appointed and removed by the royal instructions: and these were empowered to govern the colonies according to such laws as should be given under the sign manual and privy seal of England. Two other boards were formed in England, which were in like manner to consist of thirteen persons, and to be appointed equally by the king: and these were invested with the superior direction of affairs with regard to the administration of the colonies. For the benefit of the adventurers, licence was given to them to search for mines of gold, silver, and copper; yielding one-fifth of the two former metals, and one-fifteenth of the latter, to the king. They were empowered to make a coin that should pass current as well among the colonists as the natives. The president and council, within the colonies, were authorized to repel those who should attempt to settle or traffic within their jurisdiction, without their authority; to seize their persons and effects, till they should pay a duty of two and a half in the hundred of the value, if a subject; but five, if an alien: and these taxes were to be applied for one and twenty years to the use of the adventurers, but afterwards to be paid into the royal exchequer.

‘Such then is the substance of the most ancient colonial charter, which comprehended all the present colonies, from New-England to Carolina exclusive: and from which the most important privileges have at all times been claimed. Yet little was there in it, alas! favourable to the interests of freedom, or declaratory of the general privileges of the subject. Vain was it to assure the colonists of being considered as Englishmen, if they were by the same instrument deprived of English liberties: and what rights could a people be said to enjoy, who, without possessing the smallest particle of self-government, were at once subjected to the will of the prince; to the edicts of a council they did not appoint; to the ordinances of a commercial association over which they had no controul.’

‘While the council of the first colony was occupied during the summer of 1606, in procuring emigrants to accomplish the great object of its wishes, James was equally employed in a business the most arduous of any; in compiling a code of laws for an infant people. On the 20th of November of that year he issued “orders and instructions for the colonies” under the privy-seal of England. And they merit the greatest attention; because they are explanatory of the charter, as well as characteristic of that monarch.

‘He invested the general superintendence of the colonies in a council in England, “composed of a few persons of consideration and talents.” He ordered, that the word and service of God should be preached and used according to the rites and doc-

trines of the church of England. Having thus provided for the interests of religion, by interweaving into the Virginian constitution the establishment of that church, his next cares were turned to the interests of the state. Both the legislative and executive powers within the colonies were invested in the presidents and councils, without any mention of the representatives of the people or allusion to them : and they were empowered to make laws, and to constitute officers, for their government ; yet, with this proviso, that such ordinances should not touch any man's life or member, should only continue in force till made void by the king or his council, should be in substance consonant to the laws of England. With a cautious jealousy he required that none should be suffered to withdraw the allegiance of the colonists from the king and his successors ; and he commanded, that all offenders, contrary to this essential rule, should be imprisoned till reformation, or sent to England to receive condign punishment. Tumults, mutiny, and rebellion, murder and incest, were to be punished with death ; and for these offences the criminal was to be tried by a jury : he ordered smaller crimes to be punished summarily at the discretion of the president and council. And he required that no person shall remain in the colony without taking the oath of obedience. Lands were to be holden within the colony as the same estates were enjoyed in England. With a humanity and justice that did honour to that legislator, he ordered that all persons should kindly treat the heathen people in those parts, and use all proper means to draw them to the true service and knowledge of God, and to induce them to enter into a sociable traffic. And in these legislative instructions there was an express reservation, that as the colonies should increase, the king and his successors might ordain farther laws, so that they were consonant to the jurisprudence of England.

The instructions of that monarch contain several things, says the historian of that colony, of an extraordinary nature and extremely arbitrary. But there is not a more common mistake of writers than to judge of the past by the manners of their own times, and to apply principles of law, acknowledged when they write, to transactions of former times, when very dissimilar opinions prevailed. The orders before mentioned are however extremely interesting. They demonstrate as well how unlike were the sentiments of those days to the present, as what the original constitution of Virginia really was, and how much of the law of England was then introduced : they display the legislative talents of that learned prince, and evince his real views with regard to those establishments however mistaken. Yet it seems certain, that though such exertions of prerogative were very common in that age, a king of England could no more exercise a legislative authority over English subjects, because they had removed to a distant territory of the state, than over Englishmen within the realm. For the privileges of both had been derived from the same great charter. Such then was the rotten  
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foundation whereon was erected, with no great skill, the superstructure of the Virginian immunities and laws.'

It appears that the original administration of Virginia was an oligarchy, which soon produced all the inconveniences attendant on that form of government; till the number of members in the provincial council was increased. Even after some changes in their constitution, the inhabitants of this colony were far from enjoying tranquility.

'It is impossible to view mankind, says our author, in a political situation, more truly deplorable than were the Virginians during the foregoing sad period of their story. They were subjected to the arbitrary orders of their prince; to the interested ordinances of a corporation within the realm; to the edicts of a haughty governor; and they enjoyed none of those liberties which Englishmen claim as their birthright. They were awfully reduced to the condition of a conquered people: and we shall soon hear the secretary of state asserting, in the house of commons, "that Virginia was a country got by conquest, and to be governed as such by the king's prerogative." But it is altogether impossible to support the notion of conquest. For, none was made or attempted over the aborigines; and it is utterly incongruous, to speak of men, who were sent to conquer, as subjugated to the will of the conqueror. The colonists, indeed, had been hitherto ruled rather as soldiers in garrison, by martial law; or as the humble slaves of a despot; than as English subjects, who settled in a desert territory of the crown, and who were justly entitled to possess former privileges, as fully as so distant a situation admitted. Yet it will be somewhat difficult to discover, in this most ancient portion of colonial annals, peculiar immunities, or provincial authority, exclusive of parliamentary jurisdiction.'

The events related in the third chapter, are, the first assembly called, wives sent to the colonists, convicts transported as servants, tobacco first imported, taxes imposed, the Virginian constitution established, &c. The province of Virginia being in great disorder, a writ of quo warranto was issued in 1623, and the patents were cancelled.

Our author makes the following observations on the state of Virginia during the period above mentioned.

'James I. notwithstanding his prejudices and mistakes, may be justly considered as the father of the English colonies; which, but for his peculiar spirit, had probably never been planted. Yet he assuredly considered them as countries acquired by conquest; he inferred from what was neither true in principle nor fact, that they ought to be holden of his person independent of his crown or political capacity, and might be ruled consequently according to his good will, by prerogative. And he endeavour-

ed, according to the strange economy of his reign, to convert them into a mere private estate, descendible to his personal heirs. But, happily, neither his opinion nor his practice changed the allegiance of the emigrants, the nature of the relation of the plantations to the sovereign state, or the laws: and the strong resolutions of the commons, with regard to both, would have inspired wisdom into the councils of a prince less fond of his own opinions. Though he had often declared, by charters, that the colonists and their posterity should be considered as much English subjects in their new as they had been in their ancient settlements; yet it was reserved for modern times to see and to claim all the important rights deducible from that circumstance alone: and they did not, in fact, possess English liberties during that wretched period of their story. Too long were they governed by martial law, by the ordinances of a corporation in England, by the edicts of governors, by the royal orders: and, after they had acquired property, they did not enjoy what is of more real importance, personal security, freedom of thought, and of action. They supplicated the king, in the language of universal complaint, to be restored to their ancient liberties: they petitioned the parliament in the day of their miseries. Yet they applied to both without effect. The colonists sighed, during that reign, for a government of law, accompanied with temper and attention to the rights of men and the privileges of citizens. Their posterity have fully enjoyed what the original adventurers prayed for in vain. But prosperity and enjoyment are too seldom, alas! the best instructors of man in the lessons of gratitude and content.

In the subsequent chapter, the historian relates the settlement of Northern Virginia, otherwise named New England, which was planted by an obscure sect, that had acquired the appellation of *Brownists*. The following is the account which he delivers of those emigrants.

‘So early as the year 1602, they had formed a separate society at Yarmouth, and began to propagate their peculiar tenets; but, attracting immediately the notice of the vigilant administration of Elizabeth, the persecution that ensued obliged them to remove, though with the greatest difficulty and danger, to Leyden. Yet, after twelve years unmolested residence in Holland, they became unhappy in their situation, because they foresaw the destruction of their society in the toleration they enjoyed; and determined to seek new adventures in America. With this design they sent agents to treat with the Virginian company for a grant of land within its jurisdiction. They offered to transport themselves at their own expence, would the company procure them the royal licence, under the great seal, for the free enjoyment of their own notions in religion. But James, having already established the church of England in Virginia, refused to grant their desire; though he assured them, that

that while they lived peaceably he would not disturb their repose. They were somewhat disconcerted: yet, continuing unhappy in a country where they were obscure and unpersecuted, they at length resolved to trust to his verbal declarations. They procured a considerable tract of land from that corporation, which then gave every aid towards the settlement of Virginia. They entered into a commercial association with several merchants of London, in order to prosecute a common trade for mutual advantage: and having now procured two vessels, by the aid of these men, of greater wealth and importance, they sailed from England in August 1620, and arrived on the American coast in the subsequent November. They immediately discovered that they had been carried to the northward of their destination, and beyond the jurisdiction of Virginia. But the season of the year, as well as the weakness of their condition, prevented their removal southward in search of the great object of their fatigues and dangers. And here they determined to put an end to a voyage long and disastrous, which would have discouraged any other than men animated with peculiar motives of ambition, religion, or interest.

'The more sagacious beheld, with concern, "that some rather inclining to faction were not well affected to unity," and they foresaw that religion alone, without the authority of government, would not be sufficient to preserve peace, or even the appearance of society: they proposed therefore a *covenant*, which was signed before they landed, on the 11th of November, 1620, by the heads of families and freemen. It recited: that they had undertaken to plant a colony for the glory of God, and for the honour of their king and country: and, professing their loyalty to their sovereign lord king James, they combined themselves in a body politic, for the making of equal laws for the general good." Near Cape Cod, on the coast of New England, about one hundred and twenty persons landed, within the jurisdiction of the council of Plymouth; and from this circumstance probably they called the place of their settlement New Plymouth.'

Our author observes, that of all the colonies, none seems to have increased so slowly in population and in power as New Plymouth. Its soil was the most barren of any; its religion was unfocial; and its views being originally turned rather to the establishment of a factory for trade, than to the planting of a desert, favoured the spirit of monopoly, which is generally unpropitious to every laudable exertion. Such appears to have been the perverseness of this colony, that in the reign of Charles I. they presumed to exclude Englishmen from fishing on the coasts of New England.

'Amid all its disasters (says our author), none gave more real concern to the colony of New-Plymouth than the want of a title to the country which is possessed. It had built a town, erected a

citadel for its defence, and laid out farms for its support; yet it had no other claim than what mere occupancy confers, in opposition to municipal rights. During ten years it had solicited a grant without success, owing chiefly to the infidelity of its agents. The council of Plymouth, at length, in January, 1630, conveyed, as well a considerable territory around the original settlement, as a tract of land on the banks of the river Kenebeck. It conferred not only various privileges, but power to make ordinances for the government of colonists, *godly and sober*; on this condition, that they should not be contrary to the laws of England. Yet this patent was not confirmed by the crown, though the contrary has been affirmed by colonial historians. And now the emigrants, who were increased by this time to three hundred, could wish for no better title to their lands, because their possession was clothed with the legal right. But they still doubted the validity of their authority with regard to government. For, however comprehensive were the expressions of their charter, the powers of jurisdiction could not be communicated by the council of Plymouth; because they had been bestowed on it and its successors, for special purposes, and it could not grant away, by parcels, a tract so important, without the consent of the king who conferred it. Nevertheless this defect was not probably altogether unfavourable to the real interest of the settlers, or their happiness: their administration was actuated generally by principles of greater moderation and good sense, than some of their neighbours; and it was more conciliatory, and less oppressive. It was not till about this period that they had any person chosen and appropriated to the office of pastor: and, having now established a church, they professed the same faith with that of the reformed societies in Europe, except only in the article of government, which they endeavoured farther to improve. It ought to be recorded, to their honour, that however rigid they may have been when they separated from the church of England, they seldom discovered that spirit of persecution which so degraded Massachusetts at a subsequent period.

- In the fifth chapter, the author returns to the history of Virginia after the accession of Charles I. who, in colonial government, pursued the steps of his father. During ten years of this reign, the Virginians were ruled with great despotism. The governor and council appointed by the crown, were invested with the whole legislative power: they imposed taxes on the colonists at pleasure; and the king restrained their trade by his proclamations. But a legal constitution was afterwards restored.

The sixth chapter treats of the Massachusetts province, which was first settled by persons who obtained a grant of lands from the council of Plymouth. After reciting the most material parts of the charter granted to this colony, the author makes the following pertinent and judicious observations:

‘Such

¶ Such then is the substance of a charter, which the enthusiasm of those days considered as sacred, because supposed to be derived from the providence of heaven; which has been often appealed to, as so comprehensive and important; and from which such considerable privileges have been at all times claimed and exercised. Yet, Massachusetts assuredly was not erected into a province of the English empire, to be regularly governed by the acts of a provincial legislature. Nothing more was prayed for, and nothing more was granted, than the establishment of a body politic, with special authority, "for disposing the lands of the plantation, and for the government of the people there." The design of the grant was to confer the same immunities that had been given originally to the council of Plymouth: the intention of the grantees was to accept of the same powers that are usually granted to corporations within the realm.

¶ The clause, providing with a cautious spirit, that the ordinances of the company should not be repugnant to the laws of England, though uniformly inserted in all the colonial charters, was merely declaratory of the ancient jurisprudence of the state: and it was equally unnecessary as would be a similar provision in the constitution of any other corporation within the kingdom; being attended with little practical good, and giving rise to the various constructions of interest or of faction. Yet it contained a proposition of policy extremely simple and intelligible. The common law asserted, that no change of time or place shall make any alteration in the nature of the allegiance of the subject; that no inferior person or community shall do any act inconsistent with the nature of their inferiority; that no subordinate legislature shall prescribe any rule of action repugnant to the spirit of its subordination, or contradictory to the acts of the supreme legislative power; that appeals may be made from the courts of the dependent dominion to the judicatories of the sovereign state, because they are equally the right of the individual and the nation: and the inference drawn from these just premises, by the clause before-mentioned, was plainly this; that though power is now conferred to make regulation suitable and necessary for your distant colony, you shall make no ordinances inconsistent with the connexion between the territory and the country of which it is a member. The junction of England and Scotland, once separate and independent nations, is formed by statute-law; the coalition of Great Britain and her dependencies is established by common law: and both are equally binding and equally effectual for knitting together the various regions of which the British empire is composed. The union of England and Scotland alone demonstrates, that the laws of the two kingdoms may be extremely different, and even contradictory, yet the principles of their junction remain entire and unimpeached. So a colony may adopt new customs; may abrogate that part of the common law which is unsuitable to its new situation; may repeal the statute-law wherein it is inapplicable to its condition: all

all it may change, except only the principles of its coalition with the state, or the special regulations of the supreme power or great body politic of the empire, with regard to it. Were subordinate legislatures of whatever denomination to make ordinances, altering the nature of the allegiance of the territorial inhabitants, making itself less inferior than formerly, restraining appeals, or abrogating the principles of the connexion with the nation; all such attempts must be consequently either construed as void or deemed assertions of independence. Such ordinances have, in fact, been passed. And an act of the sovereign legislature, in order to vindicate its own authority, declared soon after the Revolution, when the extent of its own powers were fully understood: that all by-laws and customs, which shall be in force in any of the plantations, repugnant to any law made or to be made in this kingdom, with regard to them, shall be utterly void. This famous statute therefore, is merely declaratory of the common-law principles before-mentioned.

We are informed, that when, after the Revolution, the charter of Massachusetts was laid before some of the best politicians and lawyers, viz. Somers, Holt, Treby, and Ward, they made the subsequent remarks on its defects: that being originally granted to a great company resident in England, it was wholly inapplicable to the circumstances of a distant colony, because it gave the body politic no more jurisdiction than every other corporation within the kingdom; that no authority was conferred to call special assemblies, in which the delegates of the people should appear, because representation was expressly excluded by the clause, requiring the presence of the freemen in the general courts; that no permission was given to raise money either on the colonists, or on strangers trading thither, because the king could not give an authority which he did not himself possess; that it did not enable the legislative body to erect various judicatories, either of admiralty, of probate of wills, or of chancery, because that required such a special grant as did not here exist.

The behaviour of this colony, both in civil and religious affairs, has been marked with peculiar excesses; in consequence of which a writ of quo warranto was issued against its charter. During the civil wars in England, this province acted almost entirely as an independent state. It not only formed leagues with the neighbouring colonies, but with foreign nations, without the consent or knowledge of the government of England. It permitted no appeals from its courts to the judicatories of the sovereign state; and it refused to exercise its jurisdiction in the name of the commonwealth of England. It assumed the government of that part of New England which is now called New Hampshire, and even extended its power farther eastward,

over

over the province of Main. From the year 1650, to the Restoration, this turbulent province was chiefly employed in preserving, by persecution, uniformity in opinion and discipline; a business which, the historian remarks, seems always to have been the most congenial to its temper.

We shall defer the farther prosecution of this accurate history till our next Review.

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*Philosophical Transactions, of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXIX. Part I. For the Year 1779. 4to. 10s. 6d. L. Davis.*

**T**HIS volume commences with an Account of the Cure of the St. Vitus's Dance by Electricity, in a Letter from Dr. Anthony Fothergill, at Northampton.—The person on whom this cure was performed was a girl of ten years of age. She had for six weeks laboured under violent convulsive motions, from which, except during sleep, she had very short intermissions. The disease had not only impaired her intellectual faculties, but at length deprived her of the use of speech.

Volatile and fetid medicines were recommended, with the warm bath every other night; but these means were productive of no other benefit than that of rendering her more composed in the night. Blisters and antispasmodics were also directed, and particularly the flowers of zinc; which were continued about three weeks, without any abatement of the symptoms.

The following is the account transmitted to Dr. Fothergill by Mr. Underwood, who electrified this girl.

‘ July 5. On the glass-footed stool for thirty minutes: sparks were drawn from the arms, neck, and head, which caused a considerable perspiration, and a rash appeared in her forehead. She then received shocks through her hands, arms, breasts, and back; and from this time the symptoms abated, her arms beginning to recover their uses,

‘ July 13. On the glass-footed stool forty-five minutes: received strong shocks through her legs and feet, which from that time began to recover their wonted uses; also four strong shocks through the jaws, soon after which her speech returned.

‘ July 23. On the glass-footed stool for the space of one hour: sparks were drawn from her arms, legs, head, and breast, which for the first time she very sensibly felt; also two shocks through the spine. She could now walk alone; her countenance became more florid, and all her faculties seemed wonderfully strengthened, and from this time she continued mending to a state of perfect health.

‘ Every time she was electrified positively, her pulse quickened to a great degree, and an eruption, much like the itch, appeared in all her joints.’

Dr.

Dr. Fothergill has since visited this girl, and found her in good health. He informs us, that some time ago he cured a boy, who had long been afflicted with the St. Vitus's dance, though in a much less degree, by the same means. These instances afford strong proof of the virtue of electricity as an antispasmodic.

Art. II. A Case in which the Head of the Os Humeri was sawn off, and yet the Motion of the Limb preserved. By Mr. Daniel Orred, Surgeon, of Chester.

Art. III. Experiments on some Mineral Substances. By Peter Woulfe, F. R. S.—These experiments relate to the method of obtaining alum from crystal, quartz, and flint.

Art. IV. Account of a Petrefaction found on the Coast of East Lothian. By Edward King, Esq. F. R. S.—These petrefactions consisted of sand, concreted into a kind of stone, and were found upon the iron, ropes, and balls, belonging to the Fox man of war, which was stranded on the coast of East Lothian in 1745. The wreck remained about thirty-three years under water; but last year a violent storm from the north-east laid a part of it bare, and several masses were found near the place, covered with a hard ochry substance, of the colour of iron, which adhered so strongly to the fragments of the wreck, that great force was required to detach it from them. Mr. King then concludes, that there is, on the coasts of this island, a continual progressive induration of masses of sand and other matter at the bottom of the ocean, in the same manner as there is at the bottom of the Adriatic sea, according to the account given by Dr. Donati. It should seem, he also observes, that iron, and the solutions of iron, contribute very much to hasten the progress of petrefaction, whenever they are united with those cementing crystalline particles, which there is reason to believe are the immediate cause of the consolidation of all stones and marbles, and which abound in sea water.

Art. V. An Account of Dr. Knight's Method of making artificial Loadstones. By Mr. Benjamin Wilson, F. R. S.—For the gratification of our readers we shall insert this article.

• The method of making artificial loadstones, as it was discovered and practised by the late Dr. Gowin Knight, being unknown to the public; and I myself having been frequently present when the doctor was employed in the most material steps of that curious process, I thought a communication thereof would be agreeable to you and the philosophic world.

• The method was this: having provided himself with a large quantity of clean filings of iron, he put them into a large tub that was more than one-third filled with clean water: he then, with great labour, worked the tub to and fro for many hours together,



gether, that the friction between the grains of iron by this treatment might break off such smaller parts as would remain suspended in the water for a time. The obtaining of those very small particles in sufficient quantity seemed to him to be one of the principal desiderata in the experiment.

‘ The water being by this treatment rendered very muddy, he poured the same into a clean earthen vessel, leaving the filings behind; and when the water had stood long enough to become clear, he poured it out carefully, without disturbing such of the iron sediment as still remained, which now appeared reduced almost to impalpable powder. This powder was afterwards removed into another vessel, in order to dry it; but as he had not obtained a proper quantity thereof, by this one step he was obliged to repeat the process many times.

‘ Having at last procured enough of this very fine powder, the next thing to be done was to make a paste of it, and that with some vehicle which would contain a considerable quantity of the phlogistic principle; for this purpose he had recourse to linseed oil in preference to all other fluids.

‘ With these two ingredients only he made a stiff paste, and took particular care to knead it well before he moulded it into convenient shapes. Sometimes, whilst the paste continued in its soft state, he would put the impression of a seal upon the several pieces; one of which is in the British Museum.

‘ This paste was then put upon wood, and sometimes on tiles, in order to bake or dry it before a moderate fire, at a foot distance or thereabouts.

‘ The doctor found, that a moderate fire was most proper, because a greater degree of heat made the composition frequently crack in many places.

‘ The time required for the baking or drying of this paste was generally five or six hours before it attained a sufficient degree of hardness. When that was done, and the several baked pieces were become cold, he gave them their magnetic virtue in any direction he pleased, by placing them between the extreme ends of his large magazine of artificial magnets for a few seconds or more, as he saw occasion.

‘ By this method the virtue they acquired was such, that when any one of those pieces was held between two of his best ten guinea bars, with its poles purposely inverted, it immediately of itself turned about to recover its natural direction, which the force of those very powerful bars was not sufficient to counteract.

Art. VI. An Account of an extraordinary Dropsical Case, By Mr. John Latham.—This patient was a young lady, who died under the age of twenty-three. In the space of four years she was tapped a hundred and fifty-five times, and is supposed to have discharged in the whole three thousand seven hundred and twenty pints, or four hundred and sixty-five gallons, of water, a quantity not far short of seven hogsheads and a half.

Art,

Art. VII. Problems concerning Interpolations. By Edward Waring, M. D.—Mr. Henry Briggs was the first person who invented a method of differences for interpolating logarithms; which he published in his *Arithmetica Logarithmica*, 1624. Upon nearly the same principles the excellent improvements of Mouton, Reginald, Newton, Nicoli, Sterling, Cotes, &c. have rendered this subject an interesting branch of mathematical science. In this article, Dr. Waring thinks the same problem is made more general, without having any recourse to finding the successive differences. What is here performed, is, indeed, so general and abstract, as to be very intricate and obscure to ordinary readers, for whose benefit it might have been adviseable to be more explicit, and to have added some examples of the use of the theorems here delivered.

Art. VIII. *Disquisitio de Tempore periodico cometæ anno 1770 observati.* Auctore J. A. Lexell, Acad. Scient. Petrop. Socio:—It usually happens that during the short time in which comets are visible to the inhabitants of the earth, so very small a portion of their orbits is described, that the observation made on them by astronomers, are scarcely sufficient for determining with certainty their excentricities and periodic times. Very fortunately, however, the circumstances attending the comet which appeared for several months in the year 1770, were of so favourable a nature as to admit of some more definite computations; and hence this ingenious astronomer finds, that the periodic time of this comet ought to be only about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  years; which term agrees much better with the observations that have been made upon it than any other. This result, however, drawn from the observations on the true elliptic hypothesis, is on the supposition that the comet is not sensibly affected in its motion by the attraction of any of the planets; a supposition quite inadmissible, as this gentleman finds, that at the aphelion next preceding the year 1770, the comet's distance from Jupiter was only the 58th part of its distance from the sun, and that therefore the action of Jupiter on the comet was three times greater than the action of the sun upon it; and also that at the next following aphelion, its distance from Jupiter would be but the 491st part of the solar distance, and consequently, the action of the former 224 times greater than that of the latter. Hence he finds the motion of the comet will be so greatly disturbed by the action of Jupiter, that its future appearances and periodic time may be expected to be greatly altered.

IX. On the general Resolution of Algebraical Equations. By Edward Waring, M. D.—The general resolution and transformation of algebraical equations, have been carried by this learned

learned gentleman farther, perhaps, than by any other person. Some of his improvements were published in 1759, and afterwards farther extended in his *Miscellanea Analytica*, and *Meditationes Algebraicæ*, &c. The present article is a farther consideration of the same nature, and consists in assuming the value of the root of a general equation in indefinite terms, and thence deducing the form of the equation itself, the general coefficients of which deduced equation being compared with the coefficients of any proposed equation of the same order, the roots of this last equation become known from the root first assumed. Its utility, however, might have been more general, had the author treated the subject more explicitly, and illustrated the theorems with numerical examples.

XI. Observations on the total (with Duration) and annular Eclipse of the Sun, taken on the 24th of June, 1778, on Board the *Espagne*, being the Admiral's Ship of the Fleet of New Spain, in the Passage from the Azores towards Cape St. Vincent's. By Don Antonio Ulloa, F. R. S. Commander of the said Squadron; communicated by Samuel Horsley, LL.D. F. R. S.—The situation of don Ulloa, between the Azores and the south-west point of Portugal, at the time of this eclipse of the sun, rendered it total, the total obscuration lasting about four minutes; and, during this obscurity he observed two very rare and most curious phenomena, namely, a broad luminous ring about the disc of the moon, and a small part of the sun seen through an opening in the moon's limb before the end of the total obscuration; the former of these phenomena being very seldom seen by astronomers, and the latter we do not remember to have been ever observed or noticed before. The former of these appearances, namely, the luminous ring around the edge of the moon, was no part of the sun's disc, as seen by direct vision; because at the time of the eclipse, the moon's apparent diameter was greater than that of the sun; and therefore the moon's disc more than totally covered the sun's, and this total obscuration, as remarked above, lasted four minutes: but as these appearances are highly curious and interesting, we shall deliver them in the author's own words.

‘ Five or six seconds after the immersion we began to observe round the moon a very brilliant circle of light, which seemed to have a rapid circular motion something similar to that of a rocket turning about its center. This light became livelier and more dazzling in proportion as the center of the moon approached to that of the sun, and about the middle of the eclipse it was of the breadth of about a sixth of the moon's diameter. Out of this luminous circle there issued forth rays of light, which reached

reached to the distance of a diameter of the moon, sometimes more, sometimes less, which made me think that they were parts of a weaker light which were reflected in an atmosphere more subtle than that in which the ring was formed. When the centers of the two planets began to separate, the diminution began, and took place gradually in the same order which had been observed at its beginning and during the progress of it. It disappeared entirely four or five seconds before the emerſion. The colour of the light was not the same every where; the part immediately joining the disk of the moon was of a reddish cast; from thence it changed towards a pale yellow, which about the middle began to clear till, at the external extremity, it ended in an almost entire white. It was equally brilliant throughout, and the whirling motion, common to all the parts of it, seemed to change the form and position of the rays which appeared to the eye sometimes larger, sometimes shorter, at the same time that there was no change either in the colours of the ring themselves, or in the arrangement of them, both which continues as I have described them.

For four or five seconds before the appearance of the shining ring, and during as many after it had disappeared, one could see the stars of the first and second magnitude as at the entrance of the night; but when it was in its greatest degree of brilliancy, only those of the first magnitude could be discovered. The darkness was such, that persons who were asleep, and happened to wake, thought that they had slept the whole evening, and only waked when the night was pretty far advanced. The fowls, birds, and other animals on board took their usual position for sleeping as if it had been night.

Before the edge of the sun's disk emerged from that of the moon, there was discovered near that of the latter a very small point of that of the sun; it was imperceptible to the naked eye, but having looked at it with the glass I estimated it at first to be about the magnitude of a star of the fourth order; after which it seemed to increase to that of one of the third. Its first appearance, to wit, that before the edge of the sun emerged from that of the moon, lasted about a minute and a quarter, the luminous circle was still visible though already much weaker than it had been.

The reddish colour of the ring towards the lunar disk, its deep yellow towards the middle, its clear and very pale yellow at the external extremity, its uniform circumference, and the rays issuing from it to the distance taken notice of above, convince me that the whole is the effect of the lunar atmosphere, which is of a substance different from that of the earth, that is, more transparent, more homogeneous, more uniform, and fitter for reflecting the rays of light, since otherwise the ring would not have been equally clear, shining, and coloured throughout the whole circumference of the lunar disk. It cannot be said, that this luminous ring is the effect of the rays of the sun reflected by

by the atmosphere of the earth, because the apparent diameter of the sun is smaller than that of the moon, whose disk entirely hid that of the sun. Besides, if the luminous circle had been made by the atmosphere of the earth, its colours would have been like those of the rainbow; and it would have appeared fixed without motion; instead of which, that which was seen is the same as that which is seen by the naked eye upon the sun when it is just above the horizon a little after sun-rise or before sun-set, so that one may conclude, that this luminous circle is a part of the disk of the sun seen after refraction through the atmosphere of the moon.

The point of the sun's disk, which was seen before its limb began to emerge from that of the moon, is a very extraordinary phenomenon which I was not acquainted with before. In order to obviate all doubts which might arise about it, I must mention that we were three observers, don Joachin d'Aranda, lieutenant Wintuyfen, and I. Mr. d'Aranda, who was looking at the eclipse through a two foot telescope about the end of the total obscurity, was the first who perceived it. He, not knowing what it was, told me, that the total obscurity drew near an end, because he discovered a small point of the sun, like a star, on the edge of the moon. I looked immediately with the naked eye, and saw nothing. I then took out a spy glass, with which I saw as much. At length I took out my telescope of two feet and a half, and did discover with that a red luminous point so near the edge of the moon, that it left me no doubts of its belonging to the body of the sun. I, at that time, estimated it to be about the size of a star of the third magnitude; and imagine, that when Mr. d'Aranda discovered it, it must have been like one of the fourth. This point gradually increased, and when it became of the bigness of a star of the second magnitude, the edge of the sun emerged from that of the moon. The interval between the first discovery of this point and the beginning of the emerison was about a minute and a quarter. This apparition of the sun, before the beginning of the emerison, can only have taken place through some crevice or inequality on the limb of the moon, not perceivable at the full moon, by reason of the reflected rays which cross each other, and confuse it; whereas at the time of the eclipse, the moon's body being entirely obscured, the light of the sun is behind, and comes through the smallest openings in the disk without any confusion.

The time elapsed between the first appearance of the sun's body through the aperture of the limb of the moon and the appearance of the limb of the sun out of that of the moon will serve to determine the depth of the said chink, aperture, or inequality, which is equal to the height of the eminencies which form it.

The author observed also some spots on the sun near the time of the eclipse; and he remarks, that the very extraordinary  
: Vol. XLIX. Jan. 1780. C nary

nary appearances of the luminous spot and ring, surprised him to such a degree, that he neglected to make many other observations concerning this eclipse, which might have been very useful for the improvement of astronomy.

Art. XII. *Tentamen continens Theoriam Machinæ sublevarum.* Autore Tho. Bugge, Astronomo Regio, Astron. and Mathem. Prof. in Acad. Havniensi.—The theory of pile-driving has been but little treated of by writers; and that little on wrong principles. This article, therefore, is an attempt to place the subject in a more just light. After mentioning the importance of it, the author enumerates the principal writers, as Leopold, Desaguliers, and Belidor, pointing out their errors, especially the gross ones, committed by the last of these gentlemen. He then lays down his own theory, deduces the necessary rules of computation into algebraic formulae, and concludes with a description of the mode of computing the time requisite to drive a given number of piles with a given force, &c.

This attempt is laudable, and the author has corrected some of the errors which he found in the theory given by former writers; though he has himself fallen into some new errors; his general estimation of the quantity of friction, which the pile meets with in the ground, appears to us to want correction; and in p. 127, he brings out an absurd conclusion, or a negative quantity instead of a positive one, by assuming the value of another quantity in the formula, much below the real magnitude of its minimum value.

Art. XIII. Account of an iconantidiptic Telescope, invented by Mr. Jeurat, of the Academy of Sciences at Paris.

Mr. Jeurat, of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Paris, having discovered a construction of the iconantidiptic telescope, thought proper to communicate to the Royal Society of London a short description of this new invention.

This telescope is called the iconantidiptic heliometer, because it produces two images of the objects, the one in a direct position, and the other reversed. These two images, of opposite situation to each other, are exactly of the same size, and produce the effect of shewing the stars as entering at once both on the right and left sides of the telescope. The first coincidence of the two images on the side of each other gives the passage of the first limb; the exact coincidence of the two images upon one another gives the passage of the center of the star; and the last coincidence of the two images at the side of each other gives the passage of the second edge: from whence it follows, that we not only observe as usual the passage of the two sides of the disk of a star, but also the direct passage of the center of the star: an observation which could not before be made in a direct manner. Besides, it may be observed, that this invention

vention obviates the difficulty of illuminating the threads of the telescope in observing very small stars, for in this construction there is no occasion to see the threads.

Mr. Jeaurat gives the construction of this seemingly curious telescope, by means of general algebraical formulae, and computes a pretty large table of the dimensions of all the requisite parts of this instrument with respect to each other; from which it may easily be made by an intelligent workman.

Art. XIV. Account of the Organs of Speech of the Orang-Outang. By Peter Camper, M. D. late Professor of Anatomy, &c. in the University of Groningen, and F. R. S.—It has been affirmed by many travellers, that though the Orang does not speak, he is endued with the capacity of articulating, if he chose to exert it. But Mr. Camper, from the dissection of this animal, and other species of the monkey, clearly demonstrates the impossibility of their speaking.

Art. XV. Account of the Effects of Lightning on board the *Atlas*. By Allen Cooper, Esq. Master of the *Atlas* East-India man.

Art. XVI. Extracts of three Letters from John Longfield, M.D. at Corke, to the Astronomer Royal, containing some astronomical Observations.—These observations are mostly on the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, and on the going of the clock for ascertaining the times. The chief consequence drawn from them, is the situation of the city of Corke, the latitude of which is found to be  $51^{\circ} 53' 54''$  north, and its longitude  $8^{\circ} 29' 15''$  west of Greenwich.

Art. XVII. The Latitude of Madras deduced from Observations, made by William Stephens, chief Engineer.—From the mean of all these observations, it appears that the latitude of Madras is  $13^{\circ} 4' 54''$  north.

Art. XVIII. Account of an Infant Musician. By Charles Burney, Doctor of Music, and F. R. S.—Such of our readers as are unacquainted with the history of this prodigy, will be amazed at the following extract from Dr. Burney's interesting narrative:

‘ William Crotch was born at Norwich July 5, 1775. His father, by trade a carpenter, having a passion for music, of which however he had no knowledge, undertook to build an organ, on which, as soon as it would speak, he learned to play two or three common tunes, such as God save great George our King; Let Ambition fire thy Mind; and The Easter Hymn; with which, and such chords as were pleasing to his ear, he used to try the perfection of his instrument.

‘ I have been favoured with several particulars concerning his son's first attention to music from Robert Bartridge, esq. a gentleman

Uleman of rank is the corporation of Norwich, who, at my request, has been so obliging as to ascertain many curious facts, the truth of which, had they rested merely on the authority of the child's father or mother, might have been suspected; and transactions out of the common course of nature cannot be too scrupulously or minutely proved.

My correspondent, of whose intelligence and veracity I have the highest opinion, tells me, that I may rest assured of the authenticity of such circumstances as he relates from the information of the child's father, who is an ingenious mechanic, of good reputation, whom he knows very well, and frequently employs, as these circumstances are confirmed by the testimony of many who were witnesses of the child's early performance; and he adds, that he has himself seen and heard most of the very extraordinary efforts of his genius.

About Christmas 1776, when the child was only a year and a half old, he discovered a great inclination for music, by leaving even his food to attend to it: when the organ was playing; and about Midsummer 1777 he would touch the key-note of his particular favourite tunes, in order to persuade his father to play them. Soon after this, as he was unable to name these tunes, he would play the two or three first notes of them when he thought the key-note did not sufficiently explain which he wished to have played.

But, according to his mother, it seems to have been in consequence of his having heard the superior performance of Mrs. Lulman, a musical lady, who came to try his father's organ, and who not only played on it, but sung to her own accompaniment, that he first attempted to play a tune himself: for, the same evening, after her departure, the child cried, and was so peevish, that his mother was wholly unable to appease him. At length, passing through the dining room, he screamed and struggled violently to go to the organ, in which, when he was indulged, he eagerly beat down the keys with his little fists, as other children usually do after finding themselves able to produce a noise, which pleases them more than the artificial performance of real melody or harmony by others.

The next day, however, being left, while his mother went out; in the dining-room with his brother, a youth of about fourteen years old, he would not let him rest till he blew the bellows of the organ, while he sat on his knees and beat down the keys, at first promiscuously; but presently, with one hand, he played enough of God save great George our King to awaken the curiosity of his father, who being in a garret, which was his workshop, hastened down stairs to inform himself who was playing this tune on the organ. When he found it was the child, he could hardly believe what he heard and saw. At this time he was exactly two years and three weeks old, as appears by a copy I have obtained of the register in the parish of St. George's Colgate, Norwich, signed by the Rev. Mr. Tapps, minister.



Nor can the age of this child be supposed to exceed this account by those who have seen him, as he has not only all the appearance, but the manners, of an infant, and can no more be prevailed on to play by persuasion than a bird to sing.

It is easy to account for God save great George our King being the first tune he attempted to play, as it was not only that, which his father often performed, but had been most frequently administered to him as a narcotic by his mother, during the first year of his life. It had likewise been more magnificently played than he was accustomed to hear by Mrs. Lulman, the afternoon before he became a practical musician himself; and, previous to this event, he used to teize his father to play this tune on his organ, and was very clamorous when he did not carry his point.

Art. XIX. Account of a new Method of cultivating the Sugar Cane. By Mr. Cazaud.

Art. XX. Account of the Free Martin. By John Hunter, Esq. F. R. S.—Besides a particular account of the Free Martin, we meet in this paper with many curious observations on hermaphrodites.

This publication concludes, as usual, with a Meteorological Journal kept at the House of the Royal Society.

*A Specimen of the Civil and Military Institutes of Timour, or Tamerlane: a Work written originally by that celebrated Conqueror in the Mogul Language, and since translated into Persian. Now first rendered from the Persian into English, from a Manuscript in the Possession of William Hunter, M. D. F. R. S. Physician Extraordinary to the Queen. With other Pieces. By Joseph White, B. D. Fellow of Wadham College, Laudian Professor of Arabic, one of his Majesty's Preachers at Whitehall, and Editor and Translator of the Syriac Philoxenian Version of the Gospels. 4to. 1s 6d. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, 1780. Sold by P. Elmsly, in London.*

IT has been the frequent practice of authors, to exhibit specimens of intended works to the public. Of these specimens it is the general design, to sound the judgments and the inclinations of the literary world, and arrive at some probable conjecture concerning the success of the entire performance. We own, we are no friends to this mode of publication. It is partial: industry and talents have often been employed in the specimen, which have been looked for in vain in the sequel. Nor is it the sure means of collecting the public suffrages: it is now no longer the fashion among the learned to address the experimental author in letters of criticism and congratulation.

The only application we shall make of what has been said, to the performance before us, is, that no hesitation was necessary to determine the propriety of its appearing in a complete form.

But, whatever motives may have inclined the learned professor to this anticipation of the public curiosity, we shall proceed to give such a report of the performance, as the dignity of the subject, and the great name of Tamerlane requires.

The Civil and Military Institutes of this great conqueror, we are told, were written by himself in the Mogul language. They are addressed to his royal descendants, for whose use they were composed. He also wrote his own History, which is extant in the Asiatic libraries, but has not reached Europe. Both these works of the emperor of the East were collected by him from public historical journals, which he caused to be kept, by persons properly qualified, of all the transactions of his reign. They are interspersed with reflections, anecdotes, and political motives of conduct, which could only be known to himself. This circumstance renders it evident, that he must have forfeited his character of a great and wise man, if, during his life-time, he had divulged those secrets of state on which depended the success of his measures and the prosperity of his empire.

These conjectural facts we collect from a letter prefixed to the Specimen, written by Mr. Davy of Gloucester, in answer to some enquiries made by Mr. White.

‘Abu Taulib ul Hussini (says Mr. Davy) in the dedication of his Translation (of the Institutes) to Sultan ul Audil, says, that in the library of Jais, Haukim of Yemmun, he met with a manuscript in the Turki or Mogul language, which, on inspection, proved to be the History of Timour, written by himself; containing an account of his life and actions from the seventh to the seventy-fourth year of his age, &c. &c. He then proceeds to give the Translation of the said History, in which are included the Institutes.’

‘I was acquainted (Mr. Davy in another place informs us) with several great and learned men in India, both natives and Persians: on perusing the works of Timour, I was led to make the same enquiry which you have made, whether they were, or were not, authentic? The answers I received were always in the affirmative, and attended with some tokens and expressions of surprize, that I should, or could, doubt their being genuine. Shaah Aulum, the present Mogul, has a beautiful copy of the History and Institutes of Timour; which he holds in such esteem, and of which he is so exceedingly careful, that though he granted me the use of any other book in his possession, this he positively excepted by name, as a work so rare and valuable, that he could not trust it to the care of any person whatever.’

But let Tamerlane speak for himself.

‘Be it known to you, my fortunate sons, the conquerors of kingdoms; to you, my mighty descendants, the lords of the earth,

earth, that, trusting in Almighty God that many of my children, descendants, and posterity, shall sit upon the throne of regal authority; upon this account, having established laws and regulations for the well-governing of my dominions, I have collected together those regulations and laws as a model for others: to the end, that every one of my children, descendants, and posterity, acting agreeably thereto, my power and empire, which I acquired through dangers, difficulties, and bloodshed, by the Divine favour, by the influence of the holy religion of Mahumud\* (God's peace be upon him), and with the assistance of the powerful descendants and illustrious followers of that prophet, may be by them preserved.

\* Among the various rules which I established for the support of my glory and empire, the first was this—that I promoted the worship of Almighty God, and propagated the religion of the sacred Mahumud throughout the world; and at all times, and in all places, supported the true faith.

\* With the assistance of twelve classes of men I conquered and governed kingdoms; with them I strengthened the pillars of my fortune, and from them I selected my counsellors †.

He soon after proceeds in the following words:

\* —By discipline and order I so firmly established my authority, that the emirs, the vizirs, the soldiers, and the subjects, could not aspire beyond their respective stations; but on the contrary, every one was content and satisfied with the rank allotted him.

\* With donations of money and of jewels I rejoiced the hearts of my officers and soldiers; I permitted them to participate in the banquet; and in the field of blood they hazarded their lives in support of my power. I withheld not from them my gold nor my silver. I educated and trained them to arms; and to alleviate their sufferings, I myself shared in all their labours and in all their hardships; until, with the arm of fortitude and resolution, and with the unanimity of my chiefs, my generals, and my warriors, by the edge of the sword I obtained possession of the thrones of seven-and-twenty kings, and became the firm and established lord of,\* &c.

Here follow the oriental names of one and twenty kingdoms, which, as they are not accompanied with European translations, would convey no particular ideas of information to the English reader.

\* From the moment that I clothed myself in the robe of empire, I shut my eyes to the soft repose which is found on the bed of ease, and to that health which follows tranquillity. From the

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\* \* In writing the names of the Arabian lawgiver (as well as all other names of persons and places introduced in this publication) I have adopted the orthography of Mr. Davy, whose accuracy of pronunciation was well known in the East.

\* † The twelve classes of men here alluded to, are fully described in a subsequent part of the Institutes.

twelfth year of my age I suffered distresses, combated difficulties, formed enterprizes, and vanquished armies; experienced mutinies amongst my officers and my soldiers, was familiarised to the language of disobedience (which I opposed with policy and with fortitude), and hazarded my person in the hour of danger; until in the end I vanquished kingdoms and empires, and established the glory of my name.

—Those who had done me injuries, who had attacked my person in battle, and had counteracted my schemes and enterprizes, when they threw themselves on my mercy, I received them with kindness; conferred on them additional honours; drew the pen of oblivion over their evil actions; and treated them with such a degree of confidence, that if the least vestige of apprehension remained in their hearts, it was entirely eradicated.

Nothing is more common than desertion in the armies of Europe. Let us hear the sentiments of the Eastern conqueror on the subject.

‘Soldiers, whether associates or adversaries, I held in esteem; those who sell their permanent happiness for perishable honour, who rush into the field of battle and of slaughter, and hazard their lives in the hour of danger. The man, who preserving his fidelity to his master untainted, drew his sword on the side of my enemy, and committed hostilities against me, him I highly honoured; and when such a man offered me his services, knowing his worth, I classed him with the most faithful of my associates, and respected and valued his fidelity and attachment. That soldier who forgot his duty and his honour, and in the hour of action deserting, joined the standard of his adversary, I considered as the most detestable of men. In the war with Touktumish Khaun, his superior officers, forgetful of their duty to him who was their legal master and my confirmed foe, sent proposals and made applications unto me. I held their treachery in abhorrence; because, unmindful of that which they owed to the hand that fed them, they had thrown aside their honour and their duty, and offered their services to the enemy of their prince. Thus I reflected with myself, what fidelity have they observed to their liege lord? what fidelity will they shew unto me?’

This last seems an obvious reflection: yet, what modern commander acts upon the noble principle? These sentiments convey a very severe reprehension of a practice which disgraces some of the most polished nations of our Western world.

We shall, with the following quotation, conclude our account of this incomparable work of Tamerlane.

‘I ever acted on deliberation: and whatever enterprize I undertook, that enterprize engaged my whole attention; nor did I ever relinquish it, till I had brought it to a conclusion. I adhered to my promises. I never dealt with severity towards any one, nor was I oppressive in any of my actions; that God Al-

mighty

mighty might not deal severely towards me, nor render my own actions oppressive unto me. I enquired of learned men into the laws and regulations of ancient princes, from the days of Adam to those of the Prophet, and from that time to the present period. I weighed their institutions, their manners, their actions, and their opinions, one by one: I selected models for my own conduct from their excellent qualities and approved virtues. I enquired into the causes of the subversion of their power, and avoided those actions which tended to the destruction and overthrow of regal authority. Cruelty and oppression, which are the destroyers of posterity, and the parents of famine and of plagues, I cautiously shunned.

‘The situation of my subjects was known unto me. Those of them who were of a superior rank, I considered as my brethren; and as my children, those of the inferior class.’

What a noble sentiment!—If Tamerlane acted as he wrote (and writers of repute have authorised the belief), we cannot help considering him as the first and greatest prince who is recorded in the page of history. The manners of the nations, and the events of the age, in which he lived, were not favourable to the display of the benevolence of his heart, and the enlargement of his mind. Yet it affords matter of surprize, that in the present times, and in this country, where the notions of liberty have been stretched to the utmost wish of refined patriotism, we should find no instance where his principles are not just, and his conduct is not noble. In the contemplation of the Eastern conqueror we are seldom reminded of the king of Prussia: but we think we can discover several traits in the milder part of his character, which all Europe admires in the emperor of Germany.

We are sorry we have not room for an extract from the Specimen Mr. White has added of a beautiful and animated performance, called ‘the Loves of Eusoof and Zoolleikha,’ written by the Persian poet Jaumi. It begins, according to the custom of the oriental writers, with the praises of Allah, or the Divine Being,

‘Whose praise is the ornament of eloquent tongues.’

We hope the whole will be translated and published; and that we shall have an opportunity of bestowing on it the notice it deserves.

The attention we have with-held from the poetical part of the publication, we shall transfer to a subject which we conceive to be of high importance, and which we shall present to our readers in the words of Mr. White.

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‘ The foregoing Specimens I intended to have introduced by an Essay of some extent on the great importance and utility of the Persian Language, and by a proposal for establishing a Persian Professorship in the University of Oxford. But having since met with a pamphlet of much merit, written some years ago by governor Hastings, directed to the same object, I have thought it unnecessary to prosecute my design.

‘ During the time that I was engaged in writing the intended Essay and Proposal, I received from Mr. Davy, in answer to my repeated enquiries, the following letter, which places the importance of the Persian language for transacting the Company’s affairs in India in so clear and just a light, is founded throughout on such striking facts, and supported and illustrated with so many judicious observations and remarks, that I conceived it to be highly worthy the attention of the East India Company, and of the gentlemen in their service. Impressed with this idea, notwithstanding I afterwards relinquished my original design, I determined, if possible, to lay the Letter before the public : but as it was communicated for my private use only, Mr. Davy’s approbation was necessary for the purpose ; which, at my particular solicitation, he has been pleased to grant.’

The praises which the author bestows will not appear to be exaggerated when the subject of them is viewed by the eye of impartial criticism. Mr. Davy certainly possesses an intimate and extensive knowledge of the state and interests of our settlements in the East. Animadverting on the dangerous consequences of making the natives of India our interpreters, he says,

‘ That natives of a superior rank are not altogether proof against the influence of gold, I have met with several instances. A very strong evidence of the above assertion I have now in my possession ; namely, exact copies of all the letters wrote by the reigning Mogul, Shaah Aulum, in the years 71, 72, 73, to the several independent princes of the empire. These copies were regularly transmitted by one of the king’s confidential secretaries, and often came into my possession, before the persons to whom they were sent could receive the originals. By this means the counsels, negotiations, and intrigues of the court of Delhi, and of others, the native powers and princes of Hindostan, were entirely laid open to our inspection. This happened during the period that I had the honour to fill the post of Persian secretary to Sir Robert Barker, the then commander in chief of the forces of Bengal. The above, I think, is a strong and pointed proof, and it follows that European gentlemen only can, in prudence and in policy, be entrusted with this important business ; and that a partial knowledge of the Persian language is by no means sufficient to qualify even them to be trusted. To be able simply to converse in the Persian is a very inadequate degree of know-

knowledge. A Persian interpreter should not only be able to speak fluently in the language, but to read all such letters as he may receive; not only to read all such letters, but to answer them with his own hand, if the importance of the subject, of which they treat, should render it necessary.

After mentioning, among various other circumstances, the advantage of the Persian Grammar, and the Persian and Arabic Dictionary, which have lately appeared, he adds,

‘ Both Mr. Vansittart and Mr. Hastings had in contemplation the establishment of an academy in England, in order to promote the study of the Persian language; and to enable such young men as were intended for the India service, to acquire the rudiments of that useful knowledge at home. The return of those gentlemen to India rendered their intentions abortive: but those intentions, nevertheless, tend to prove the high idea they entertained of its importance and utility.’

The result of the facts and reasoning contained in the Letter before us, is the propriety of establishing a Persian secretary to the East India Company, resident in or near the capital.

‘ It is well known (continues Mr. D.) that the court of directors annually receive from their settlements in India, letters, memorials, treaties, and other important papers, in the Persian language, transmitted to them as vouchers by their officers abroad. It is true, that translations of such papers are usually sent with the originals. But it must be well known to gentlemen conversant in India affairs, that from many circumstances, accurate translations of such letters, memorials, and treaties, by a gentleman unbiassed by party, faction, or interest, and under their own immediate protection, must be highly acceptable and advantageous to the India government at home. Such a person would also be able to translate into the Persian language all such treaties and letters, as they might have occasion to send or write to the native powers of Hindostan; which might be transmitted to India under their proper seal, and consequently not be liable to an erroneous translation abroad.’

We concur in a belief of the utility of the proposed institution, which we think very practicable, if persons can be found (and we have no reasons to think there cannot) who are pointed out as proper to be employed, by qualifications like those Mr. Davy appears to possess. This gentleman’s letter, in support of his plan, is sensible and ingenious. We do not conceive it was necessary to have said so much; yet we cannot wish he had said less.

*A New*

*A New Geographical, Historical, and Commercial Grammar; and Present State of the several Kingdoms of the World. By William Guthrie, Esq. The Astronomical Part by James Ferguson, F.R.S. A New Edition, with great Additions and Improvements. Illustrated with a Set of large Maps. 4to. 11. 1s. Boards. Robinson.*

THIS work was first noticed in our Review for the month of November 1770; since which time it has undergone a great number of editions in octavo, its original size. But the high esteem in which it is universally held, has at length induced the proprietors to publish an edition of it in a handsome quarto volume, as more becoming the rank to which it is entitled in every gentleman's library. To the account we formerly gave of the merits of this excellent Grammar, the public opinion has concurred so much in its testimony, that it would be superfluous to say any thing farther on the subject. We shall therefore only observe, that the present edition has received considerable improvements in all its parts, particularly the historical. We are not only presented with an account of the late revolutions in Russia, Denmark, Sweden, and Poland, but of the rise and progress of the contest between Great Britain, and the American colonies. To these is added a concise narrative of the late voyages which have been performed at the expence of the government, for the purposes of discovery, especially in the southern hemisphere.

As a specimen of the historical additions, we shall lay before our readers the account of the late revolution in Sweden.

But scarcely had the king taken these solemn oaths to rule according to the then established form of government, and accepted the crown upon these conditions, before he formed the plan to govern as he thought proper, regarding these oaths only as matters of ceremony. And he made use of every art, the most profound dissimulation, and the utmost dexterity and address, in order to render this hazardous enterprise successful. At his first arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increase his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who presented themselves. Neither rank, fortune, nor interest, were necessary to obtain access to him: it was sufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cause of complaint to lay before him. He listened to the meanest of his subjects with affability, and entered into the minutest details that concerned them; he informed himself of their private affairs, and seemed to interest himself in their happiness. This conduct made him considered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolize him. In the warmth of their gratitude they forgot, that motives of ambition might have some share in  
form.



forming a conduct which to them appeared to proceed from principles of the purest benevolence. At the same time that he laboured to render himself generally popular, he also endeavoured to persuade the leading men of the kingdom, that he was sincerely and inviolably attached to the constitution of his country, that he was perfectly satisfied with the share of power the constitution had allotted to him, and he took every opportunity to declare, that he considered it as his greatest glory to be the first citizen of a free people. He seemed intent only on banishing corruption, and promoting union; he declared he would be of no party but that of the nation; and that he would ever pay the most implicit obedience to whatever the diet should enact. These professions lulled the many into a fatal security, though they created suspicions among a few of greater penetration, who thought his majesty promised too much to be in earnest. In the mean time, there happened some contentions between the different orders of the Swedish states; and his methods were left untried to foment these jealousies. Emissaries were likewise planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpose of sowing discontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them disaffected to the established government, and of exciting them to an insurrection. At length, when the king found his scheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper measures for bringing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers into his interest, on the 19th of August, 1772, he totally overturned the Swedish constitution of government. In less than an hour he made himself master of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council-chamber, in which the senate were assembled; and made all the members of it prisoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden, of the transaction in which the king was engaged, till the scheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arsenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers stood over these with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a passport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The senators were then confined in separate apartments in the palace, and many others who were supposed to be zealously attached to the liberties of Sweden, were put under arrest. The remainder of the day the king employed in visiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magistrates, the colleges, and the city militia. Oaths were also tendered the next day, to the people in general, to whom he addressed a speech, which he concluded by declaring, that his only intention was to restore tranquillity to his native country, by suppressing licentiousness, overturning the aristocratic form of government, reviving the old Swedish liberty, and restoring the ancient laws of Sweden, such as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," said he, "as I have already done, all idea of the ab-

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hoored absolute power, or what is called *sovereignty*, expressing it now, as before, my greatest glory to be the first citizen among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town, to proclaim an assembly of the states for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet should absent himself, he should be considered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21st of August, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take possession of the square, where the house of nobles stands. The palace was invested on all sides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court, facing the hall where the states were to be assembled. These were not only charged, but soldiers stood over them with matches ready lighted in their hands. The several orders of the states were here compelled to assemble by the king's order, and these military preparations were made in order to assist their deliberations. The king being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addressed a speech to the states, he ordered a secretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the states for their acceptance. As they were surrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marshal of the diet, and the speakers of the other orders, signed the form of government; and the states took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himself. This extraordinary transaction was concluded in a manner equally extraordinary. The king drew a book of Psalms from his pocket, and taking off his crown, began to sing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the assembly. He afterwards gave them to understand, that he intended in six years time again to convene an assembly of the states. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodshed, in which the Swedes surrendered that constitution, which their forefathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark against any despotic attempts of their future monarchs.

The Swedes, at some periods, have discovered an ardent love of liberty; at others, they have seemed fitted only for slavery; and when they were labouring to render themselves free, they have wanted that sound political knowledge, which would have pointed out to them the proper methods for securing their future freedom. The most capital defect of the Swedish constitution was the total want of all balance of its parts; and the division of the Swedish nation into three distinct classes of nobles, burghers, and peasants, whose interests were perpetually clashing, has been a circumstance very unfavourable to the liberty of the Swedes. The power of their kings was much restrained; but no sufficient regulations were adopted for securing the personal freedom of the subject. These defects in the Swedish constitution paved the way for the late revolution: but it is notwithstanding a just subject of surprise, that a bold and hardy people, who had so

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cautiously limited the power of their prince, should at once, without a struggle, suffer him to proceed to so great an extension of his authority. It appears, however, that the exorbitant power which Gustavus the Third hath thus assumed, he has hitherto, since the revolution, exercised with some degree of moderation.

Besides great and numerous improvements, this valuable edition is furnished with a set of maps, executed upon a scale that corresponds to the enlarged dimensions of the volume; and considered in every respect, the work, in its present form, is rendered more worthy of the great reputation it has acquired, than any former edition.

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*The Commercial Restraints of Ireland considered. In a Series of Letters to a noble Lord. Containing an Historical Account of the Affairs of that Kingdom, so far as they relate to this Subject. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Longman.*

THESE letters appear to have been written with the view of elucidating the state of Ireland, and of tracing the causes of its distress. Since the passing of the late act of parliament respecting that kingdom, those objects of enquiry may, perhaps, be considered as of little importance: but to examine the various operations of restrictive laws on the interests of a community, must always be a useful disquisition in political science; and in the present case, it must likewise afford pleasure to every friend of his country, to find that the legislature has not only acted with becoming magnanimity, but, at the same time, upon the clearest principles of national advantage.

The first of these Letters is dated from Dublin, the 20th of August last, and contains a melancholy account of the state of Ireland.

The present state of Ireland, says the author, teems with every circumstance of national poverty. Whatever the land produces is greatly reduced in its value: wool is fallen one half in its usual price; wheat one third; black cattle of all kinds in the same proportion, and hides in a much greater: buyers are not had without difficulty at those low rates, and from the principal fairs men commonly return with the commodities they brought there: rents are every where reduced, in many places it is impossible to collect them: the farmers are all distressed, and many of them are failed: when leases expire, tenants are not easily found: the landlord is often obliged to take his lands into his own hands, for want of bidders at reasonable rents, and finds his estate fallen one fourth in its value. The merchant justly complains that all business is at a stand, that he cannot discount his bills, and that neither money nor paper circulates. In this and the last year, above twenty thousand manufacturers, in

in this metropolis were reduced to beggary for want of employment; they were for a considerable length of time supported by alms; a part of the contribution came from England, and this assistance was much wanting, from the general distress of all ranks of people in this country. Public and private credit are annihilated: parliament, that always raises money in Ireland on easy terms, when there is any to be borrowed in the country, in 1778 gave  $7\frac{1}{2}$  l. per cent. in annuities, which in 1773 and 1775 were earnestly sought after at 6 l. then thought to be a very high rate. The expences of a country, nearly bankrupt, must be inconsiderable; almost every branch of the revenue has fallen; and the receipts in the treasury for the two years, ending Lady-day, 1779, were less than those for the two years, ending Lady-day, 1777, deducting the sums received on account of loans in each period, in a sum of 334,900 l. 18s. 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  d. there was due on the 25th of March last, on the establishments, and for extraordinary expences, an arrear amounting to 373,706 l. 13s. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$  d. a sum of 600,000 l. will probably be now wanting to supply the deficiencies on the establishments and extraordinary charges of government; and an annual sum of between 50 and 60,000 l. yearly, to pay interest and annuities: in the last session 466,000 l. was borrowed; if the sum wanting could now be raised, the debt would be increased in a sum of above 1,000,000 l. in less than three years, and if the expences and the revenues should continue the same as in the last two years, there is a probability of an annual deficiency of 200,000 l. The nation in the last two years has not been able to pay for its own defence; a militia law, passed in the last session, could not be carried into execution for want of money. Instead of paying forces abroad, Ireland has not been able in this year to pay the forces kept in the kingdom: it has again relapsed into its ancient state of imbecility, and Great Britain has been lately obliged to send over money to pay the army which defends this impoverished country.

Among the causes of this distress, the author mentions the American rebellion, which has greatly lessened the demand for Irish linens; an embargo on provisions, which has continued three years; with the increasing drain of remittances to England for rents, salaries, profits of offices, pensions and interest, and for the payment of forces abroad. These several causes, however, the author observes, though they have much increased the national distress, are none of them the sources from which this originally flowed.

In the second Letter, the author investigates the essential evils to which the distress of Ireland ought to be imputed. In prosecuting this subject, he considers the state of Ireland at different periods; beginning with the settlement of that country by king James to the year 1641. He afterwards resumes the

the enquiry at the Restoration, and traces it to the Revolution; continuing it thence to the year 1699, when an act was passed in England restraining the exportation of all woollen manufactures from Ireland. From this epoch the author dates the various distresses of that country; and he confirms his opinion by taking a view of the prosperity which the kingdom had formerly enjoyed.

The third Letter contains an account of the state of Ireland, from the death of queen Anne to the year 1755; and the fourth continues the subject from this period to the year 1779. It appears, that the lower orders of the people in Ireland were in great distress in 1765, 1771, 1778, and 1779; and there being no natural nor accidental causes of that effect, the author reasonably ascribes it to mistaken policy.

In the fifth Letter, the author observes, that the English law, prohibiting the exportation of cattle, forced the Irish to increase their breed of sheep; and that the woollen manufacture was cultivated in Ireland for ages before, and for several years after the Revolution, without any appearance of jealousy from England, except an attempt which was made in the administration of lord Strafford. After reciting the history of the act of parliament, prohibiting the exportation of woollen manufactures from Ireland, the author examines how far the apprehension which the English entertained of their being deprived of this branch of trade by the Irish, was well founded.

Spinning, says he, is now certainly cheaper in Ireland, because the persons employed in it live on food with which the English would not be content; but the wages of spinners would soon rise if the trade was opened. At the loom, I am informed, that the same quantity of work is done cheaper in England than in Ireland; and we have the misfortune of daily experience to convince us that the English, notwithstanding the supposed advantages of the Irish in this trade, undersell them at their own markets in every branch of the woollen manufacture. A decisive proof that they cannot undersell the English in foreign markets.

With the increase of manufactures, agriculture, and commerce in Ireland, the demand for labour, and consequently its price, would increase. That price would be soon higher in Ireland than in England. It is not in the richest countries, but in those that are growing rich the fastest, that the wages of labour are highest, though the price of provisions is much lower in the latter; this, before the present rebellion, was in both respects the case of England and North America. Any difference in the price of labour is more than balanced by the difference in the price of the material, which has been for many years past higher in Ireland than in England, and would become more valuable

if the export of the manufacture was allowed. The English have also great advantages in this trade from their habits of diligence, superior skill, and large capitals. From these circumstances, though the Scotch have full liberty to export their woollen manufactures, the English work up their wool, and the Scotch make only some kinds of coarse cloths for the lower classes of their people; and this is said to be for want of a capital to manufacture it at home. If the woollen trade was now open to Ireland, it would be for the most part carried on by English capitals, and by merchants resident there. Nearly one half of the stock which carried on the foreign trade of Ireland in 1672, inconsiderable as it then was, belonged to those who lived out of Ireland. The greater part of the exportation and coasting trade of British America was carried on by the capitals of merchants who resided in Great Britain; even many of the stores and ware-houses from which goods were retailed in some of their principal provinces, particularly in Virginia and Maryland, belonged to merchants who resided in Great Britain, and the retail trade was carried on by those who were not resident in the country. It is said that in ancient Egypt, China, and Indostan, the greater part of their exportation trade was carried on by foreigners. The same thing happened formerly in Ireland, where the whole commerce of the country was carried on by the Dutch; and at present in the victualling trade of Ireland, the Irish are but factors to the English. This is not without example in Great Britain, where there are many little manufacturing towns, the inhabitants of which have not capitals sufficient to transport the produce of their own industry to those distant markets where there is demand and consumption for it, and their merchants are properly only the agents of wealthier merchants, who reside in some of the greater commercial cities. The Irish are deficient in all kind of stock, they have not sufficient for the cultivation of their lands, and are deficient in the stocks of master manufacturers, wholesale merchants, and even of retailers.

Of what Ireland gains it is computed that one third centers in Great Britain. Of our woollen manufacture the greatest part of the profit would go directly there. But the manufacturers of Ireland would be employed, would be enabled to buy from the farmers the superfluous produce of their labour, the people would become industrious, their numbers would greatly increase, the British state would be strengthened, though probably this country would not for many years find any great influx of wealth; it would be however more equally distributed, from which the people and the government would derive many important advantages.

Whatever wealth might be gained by Ireland would be, in every respect an accession to Great Britain. Not only a considerable part of it would flow to the seat of government, and of final judicature, and to the centre of commerce; but when Ireland should be able she would be found willing, as in justice she ought

ought to be, to bear a part of those burthens under which Great Britain labours, in her efforts for the protection of the whole British empire. If Ireland cheerfully and spontaneously, but when she was ill able, contributed, particularly in the years 1759, 1761, and 1769, and continued to do so in the midst of distress and poverty, without murmur, to the end of the year 1778, when Great Britain thought proper to relieve her from a burden which she was no longer able to bear, no doubt can be entertained of her contributing, in a much greater proportion, when the means of acquiring shall be opened to her.

It is afterwards clearly evinced, that the act which prohibited the exportation of Irish woollen manufactures instead of benefiting England, actually operated to her disadvantage, by encouraging the smuggling of wool from Ireland to France, and enabling the latter to undersell us in this profitable branch of commerce.

In the sixth letter the author considers the linen manufacture of Ireland, which he shews is far too inconsiderable for advancing the prosperity of the kingdom. In treating of this subject, he observes, that America, the opening of whose markets to Irish linens was thought to have been one of the principal encouragements to the trade, is now become a rival and an enemy, and when she puts off the latter character, will appear with new force and infinite advantage. This conjecture is rendered the more probable, when we consider not only the extent of land which, in America, is to spare for this impoverishing production, but likewise what is mentioned by the author in the following passage.

‘That some parts of Ireland may produce good flax must be allowed, and also that part of Flanders would produce fine wool. But though the legislature has for many years made it a capital object to encourage the growth of flax and the raising of flax-seed in this kingdom, yet it is obliged to pay above 9000*l.* yearly in premiums on the importation of flax-seed, which is now almost all imported, and costs us between 70 and 80,000*l.* yearly. Flax-farming, in any large quantity, is become a precarious and losing trade, and those who have been induced to attempt it by premiums from the linen-board have, after receiving those premiums, generally found themselves losers, and have declined that branch of tillage.

‘When the imported flax-seed is unsound and fails in particular districts, which very frequently happens, the distress, confusion and litigation that arise among manufacturers, farmers, retailers, and merchants, afford a melancholy proof of the dangerous consequences to a populous nation, when the industry of the people, and the hope of the rising year rest on a single manufacture, for the materials of which we must depend upon the courtesy and good faith of other nations.’

In the seventh letter, the author enumerates various restrictions on the Irish trade, which have proved highly prejudicial to the kingdom. In the eighth, he shews, that the state of Ireland, at the time of making those laws, was totally different from the present; and that a perseverance in restrictive policy will be ruinous to the trade of Great Britain.

In the ninth letter, he observes, that various prohibitions and restraints give the British a great advantage over the Irish in every species of trade and manufacture, particularly in the linen and woollen; and he shews, that the extension of the commerce of Ireland would open new sources of trade to the British merchant.

The state of facts contained in these letters is extracted from the best authorities, chiefly the English and Irish statutes, and the parliamentary journals of both kingdoms; and if therefore their authenticity be unquestionable, the judicious observations which this intelligent writer makes appear to be equally well-founded. Though his principal object be the interest of Ireland, he seems to be less actuated with the warmth of a national partizan than of a friend to the commerce both of that kingdom and Great Britain. Nor can we doubt, that had the restraints on the Irish trade not yet been removed by the legislature, his remarks and arguments would have had great weight in urging the expediency of the measure which has been adopted.

*Memoirs of the Marshal Duke of Berwick. Written by Himself. With a summary Continuation from the Year 1716, to his Death 1734. 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. Cadell.*

**P**ERHAPS no species of composition affords greater entertainment than the memoirs of men who have been rendered illustrious by their rank and abilities. If the history of such persons be naturally interesting, it doubly attracts our attention when written by themselves. We are then introduced, as it were, to the acquaintance of the author in person, and behold him in one of the noblest employments of a virtuous mind; that of appealing for the rectitude of his conduct to the impartial determination of posterity. Few men in any age have ventured upon the delicate task of becoming their own biographers. Among those who, in modern times, have distinguished themselves by such an undertaking, one of the most eminent is James the Second, father to the duke of Berwick, and from whom, it is probable that the latter, either by precept or example, derived the first idea of the work now under our consideration.

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The original editor of these Memoirs is said to be Mr. Hooke, a doctor of the Sorbonne, and son of the gentleman of that name who wrote the Roman History. Prefixed to the translation, is a Sketch of a Historical Panegyric of the Marshal of Berwick, by the President Montesquieu, between whom and the duke there appears to have subsisted a great friendship. The Panegyric contains a short account of the principal events in the marshal's life; but these being related by himself, we shall afterwards mention them upon his own authority. It is sufficient to extract from the Panegyric such traits of the marshal's character as could not be drawn by his own pen.

Of the private character of this great man, the president Montesquieu delivers the following account :

“ He scarce obtained any favours which were not offered to him : when his own interest was concerned, it was always necessary to push him on.—His reserved and rather dry look, which was sometimes even inclined to severity, made him appear at times as if he were not in his proper element, in our country, if it were possible that great souls and personal merit could be confined to any one nation.

“ He knew not how to say those things that are usually called pretty things. He was more especially free from those numberless errors into which persons, who are overfond of themselves, are continually falling.—He was determined, for the most part, by his own judgment; and if, on the one hand, he had not too high an opinion, on the other, he had no distrust of himself; he considered and knew himself with as much penetration, as he viewed all other objects.—No man ever knew better how to avoid excesses, or, if I may venture to use the expression, to keep clear of the snares of virtue: for example, he was fond of the clergy: he readily enough accommodated himself to the modesty of their station; but he could not bear to be governed by them; especially if they transgressed in the least article the limits of their duty: he required more of them than they would have required of him.—It was impossible to behold him, and not be in love with virtue, so evident was tranquillity and happiness in his soul, particularly when he was compared with others who were agitated by various passions.—In the works of Plutarch, I have seen at a distance what great men were; in him I beheld in a nearer view what they are. I was only acquainted with him in private life: I never saw the hero, but the man from whom the hero issued.—He loved his friends: it was his custom to do services, and not to speak of them: thus the benefit was dispensed by an invisible hand.—He had a great fund of religion. No man ever followed more strictly those laws of the gospel, which are most troublesome to men of the world: in a word, no man ever practised religion so much, and talked of it so little.—He never spoke ill of any one; and at the same time never bestowed any praise upon those whom he did not think deserving of it.—

He held in aversion those controversies, which, under pretence of the glory of God, are nothing more than personal disputes. He had learned from the misfortunes of the king his father, that we expose ourselves to commit great errors, when we have too much faith even in persons of the most respectable character.— When he was appointed commandant in Guyenne, we were alarmed at the report of his gravity; but soon after his arrival he was beloved by every body, and there is no place where his great qualities have been more admired.

No man ever gave a brighter example of the contempt we ought to have for money.— There was a simplicity in all his expences, which ought to have made him very easy in his circumstances; for he indulged himself in no frivolous expence; nevertheless he was always in arrears, because, notwithstanding his natural economy, his expences were great. In the governments he was appointed to, every English or Irish family that was poor, and that had any sort of connection with any one of his house, had a kind of right to be introduced to him; and it is remarkable, that a man who knew how to maintain so much order in his army, and shewed so much judgment in all his projects, should lose all these advantageous talents, when his own private interest was concerned.

He was not one of those persons, who are sometimes complaining of the authors of any misfortune, and at other times flattering them; when he had a cause of complaint against any man, he went directly to him, and told him his sentiments freely, after which he said no more.

The duke of Berwick was born on the twenty-first of August, 1670. He was the son of James, duke of York, afterwards king of England, and of Miss Atabella Churchill, sister to the duke of Marlborough. Such indeed, says Montesquieu, was the fate of the house of Churchill, that it gave birth to two men, who were destined, at the same time, each of them to shake, and to support, the two greatest monarchies of Europe.

The duke of Berwick informs us, that at seven years of age he was sent into France, to be educated in the Catholic religion. He was placed, with his brother, afterwards duke of Albemarle, at Jully, where the duke of Monmouth, natural son of Charles the Second, had also studied. At the death of father Gough, to whom the care of their education had been entrusted, the two brothers were removed to the college of Pleffis, till the year 1684, when the duke of York desiring to see them, they repaired to England. Their father presented them to the king, who received them with great kindness, and offered to give the youth who is the subject of these Memoirs a title, which, however, was declined by the duke of York. The two young visitants were sent back to France to finish their studies, and by the advice of father Peters, were placed at La Fleche, whence

the author of the narrative was removed to Paris, to go through his exercises. At the age of fifteen he quitted the academy, and went into Hungary, where he served a campaign in the Imperial army, which was destined to the siege of Buda. In 1687, after passing the winter at the court of London, he was created duke of Berwick; till which time he was only called M. Fitz-James. In the spring he returned to Hungary, where the emperor gave him a commission of colonel, with the command of the regiment of cuirassiers of Taaf.

Towards the end of the same year the duke again arrived in England, where the king immediately bestowed on him the government of Portsmouth, and the county of Southampton. Next summer he obtained lord Ferrers's regiment of infantry, and soon after the earl of Oxford's regiment of horse-guard. It would be injurious to suppose that this promotion, however early and rapid, proceeded from the undiscerning partiality of parental fondness: for though the duke was not then eighteen years of age, he appears to have already discovered uncommon military talents, which soon after became conspicuous during the war in Ireland.

In this part of the Memoirs he mentions, in the following terms, the birth of the king's legitimate son.

'On the 20th of June, the queen was brought to bed in St. James's palace, of a prince, who, according to the custom of the kingdom, was immediately created prince of Wales. The queen dowager, the chancellor, and all persons of rank at court and in the city, were in the queen's chamber, at the time of his birth; the king having taken care to order that they should be apprized of it; the princess of Denmark, the king's daughter, was absent, and it is thought that she went purposely to Bath, in order not to be present at the lying-in.

'The prince of Orange sent count Quilestein to pay his compliments to the king in form: but at the same time much chagrined to see himself removed to a distance from the throne, by the birth of a prince, he employed emissaries in all parts, to insinuate that this child was not born of the queen, but that the Catholics had furnished a supposititious one, in order that the crown might devolve on an heir of their religion. There were no sorts of falsehoods, impostures and artifices, that were not made use of to endeavour to make this calumny probable; and the princess of Denmark's silence upon this point, served to increase the suspicions. She was the more to blame, as she was better acquainted than any other person with the reality of the queen's pregnancy; having often put her hand upon the naked belly of the queen, and felt the child move. It is true, that since the revolution, she has written to the king her father, to ask his pardon for all she had done against him; but these are vain words, which have not repaired the misfortunes of his family.'

The subsequent anecdote receives additional weight from the candour and ingenuous modesty with which it is introduced :

‘ Though I would willingly conceal lord Churchill’s faults, I cannot avoid mentioning one pretty remarkable circumstance. The king intended to go from Salisbury in my coach, to visit the quarter commanded by major general Kirk ; but was prevented by a prodigious bleeding of the nose, which seized him on a sudden ; and it is said, that a scheme was laid, and the measures taken by Churchill and Kirk, to deliver up the king to the prince of Orange : but this accident frustrated the design.’

The military capacity of the young duke is strongly marked by his observations relative to the defence of Portsmouth, of which he was governor at the time of the Revolution. In obedience to the king’s command, he surrendered that town to the prince of Orange, and embarked at Rochester, with the unfortunate monarch, for France. Of the affairs of England at that period the author of the Memoirs thus speaks :

‘ As soon as the prince of Orange was informed of the departure of the king, and of his arrival in France, he assembled a convention, at which were present all the nobles of the kingdom, and the deputies of the counties and cities. After much debate, it was at length concluded by a majority of voices, that the king had abdicated, and therefore that the throne was vacant.

‘ The king wrote, from St. Germain’s, a letter to the convention, to explain to them his reasons for retiring into France ; and to forbid them, at the same time, to proceed in any matter, contrary to his interest and authority ; but they would not receive his letter ; and soon after they transferred the crown to the prince and princess of Orange, or rather elected them king and queen of England.

‘ I do not purpose to make a long discourse here, to prove the irregularity of all these proceedings in England ; I shall only say, that no prince has ever been prohibited by any custom or law, from going out of one of his kingdoms, without the leave of his subjects, and that it is absurd to advance, that in doing this, he abdicates ; abdication being a voluntary resignation, made either by word of mouth, or in writing, or at least by silence not compelled, after an explanation has been urged. The king was never in either of these cases ; he was a prisoner, and in order to get out of the hands of his enemies, was obliged to take refuge where he could. Besides, it was not possible for him to join his faithful subjects in Scotland, or Ireland, but by the way of France ; for all England being in rebellion, he could not pass through the whole of that kingdom without great danger : but supposing it to be true, that the king had abdicated ; the crown then, according to the fundamental laws of the kingdom, would have devolved, *ipso facto*, on the immediate heir, who being then only a child in the cradle, could not have committed any

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any crime, or abdicated. The prince of Wales, his son, had been acknowledged as such by all Europe, by all the English nation, and even by the prince of Orange: the prince of Wales therefore was king; and in order to acknowledge another, it must have been proved that this was a supposititious child; a circumstance which no one has ever ventured to undertake, inasmuch as no prince ever came into the world in presence of so many witnesses as he did; as it was proved in full council and meeting of persons of distinction, a little before the prince of Orange's invasion. I could speak knowingly on the subject, for I was present; and notwithstanding my respect and attachment to the king, I could never have consented to connive at so detestable an action, as that of introducing a supposititious child, in order to deprive the true heirs of the crown; neither should I have continued after the king's death to support the pretensions of an impostor; honour and conscience would have forbidden me.

I shall add this one observation. The prince of Orange, by his declaration, when he went into England, gave out that he came with no other intention than to prevent the subversion of the church of England, and to examine into the birth of the prince of Wales.

With regard to the first point, he effected it by dethroning a Catholic king; but at the same time he subverted one of the principal articles of the English church, which had before piqued itself upon supporting the doctrine of passive obedience. With regard to the second point, I have already said, that the prince of Orange never ventured to have it discussed; neither indeed was it any longer necessary for him, since he had been declared king: his emissaries have even often been desirous of advancing that he held the crown only by right of conquest, as William the Conqueror had done.

In March 1689, the duke of Berwick, with his father, arrived at Kinsale, in Ireland, where he assumed an active part in the war which broke forth in that country. He soon distinguished himself by an act of military skill and courage at Donnegal, and afterwards at Inniskillin.

We are informed that the prince of Orange, seeing the failure of his attack on Limerick, and that he had lost his best troops in it, resolved to raise the siege. He gave out through Europe that the continual rains had been the cause of it: but I can affirm, says the duke, that not a single drop of rain fell for above a month before, or for three weeks after.

In February 1692, the duke quitted Ireland, and repaired to France, whence he accompanied Lewis the Fourteenth to the war in Flanders, as a volunteer.

Besides great military talents, the young duke of Berwick appears to have been endowed with no small degree of penetration into the characters of men. Of this we meet with an instance

instance in his account of the principal persons who took part in the war in Ireland.

Richard Talbot, duke of Tyrconnel, was a native of Ireland, of a good family: his stature was above the ordinary size; he had great experience of the world, having been early introduced into the best company, and possessed of an honourable employment in the household of the duke of York; who, upon his succession to the crown, raised him to the dignity of an earl, and well knowing his zeal and attachment, made him soon after viceroy of Ireland. He was a man of very good sense, very obliging, but immoderately vain, and full of cunning. Though he had acquired great possessions, it could not be said, that he had employed improper means, for he never appeared to have a passion for money. He had not a military genius, but much courage. After the prince of Orange's invasion, his firmness preserved Ireland, and he nobly refused all the offers that were made to induce him to submit. From the time of the battle of the Boyne, he sank prodigiously, being become as irresolute in his mind, as unwieldy in his person.

Patrick Sarsfield was by birth a gentleman, and succeeded, by the death of his elder brother, to an estate of about two thousand pounds a year. He was a man of an amazing stature, utterly void of sense, very good-natured, and very brave. He had served as ensign in France, in the regiment of Monmouth, and had also been lieutenant of the life-guards in England. When the king went over to Ireland, he gave him a regiment of cavalry, and made him brigadier. The affair of the convoy, in which he was victorious, elated him so much, that he thought himself the greatest general in the world. Henry Luttrell contributed as much as possible to turn his head, by incessantly praising him in all companies; not out of any real esteem he had for him, but to make him popular, and by that means render him subservient to his own designs. In effect, the Irish in general conceived so high an opinion of him, that the king, to gratify him, created him earl of Lucan, and in the next promotion made him major-general. After the capitulation of Limerick, he went over to France, where the king gave him a troop of life-guards, and the most Christian king made him major-general. He was killed in 1693, at the battle of Neerwinden.

Henry Luttrell was a gentleman of Ireland, and had served some campaigns as a subaltern in France; he had a great share of sense, a great share of address, a great share of courage, and was a good officer; capable of any thing to accomplish his ends. From the taking of Galway, he was suspected of a correspondence with the enemy, insomuch that lord Lucan, his intimate friend, put him in arrest at Limerick, by order of the duke of Tyrconnel. After the capitulation of that place, the prince of Orange gave him his elder brother's estate, and also a pension of

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two thousand crowns. He was assassinated at Dublin in 1717, nor could it ever be discovered by whom.

In the campaign of 1693, the author of the *Memoirs* was made prisoner by his uncle, brigadier Churchill, brother to the duke of Marlborough. He tells us, that on being brought to the prince of Orange, the latter made him a very polite compliment, to which he only replied by a low bow. After looking stedfastly at him for an instant, the prince put on his hat, and the duke his.

In 1695, the duke of Berwick married a daughter of the earl of Clanrickard; but she dying in 1698, he, in two years after, on returning from a tour in Italy, married Miss Bulkely, niece to the lord of that name.

The duke gives the following character of the prince of Orange, otherwise king William III. of England:

‘Whatever reason I may have not to be fond of the memory of this prince, I cannot deny him the character of a great man, and even of a great king, had he not been an usurper. He had the art even from his youth to render himself almost absolute in his republic, notwithstanding the credit and authority of the De Witts. He had a very extensive understanding, was an able politician, and was never discouraged in his pursuits, whatever obstacles he might meet with. He was very rigid, but not naturally cruel: very enterprising, but no general. He was suspected of not having much courage; yet it must be acknowledged, that at least he had courage as far as to the drawing of his sword. His ambition was evident in all his intrigues to dethrone a prince who was his uncle, and his father-in-law; in which he could not have succeeded but by numbers of ways, as contrary to the duties of an honest man, as they are repugnant to Christianity.’

In relating the occurrences of the year 1702, the duke informs us, that the remainder of these *Memoirs* will be found more circumstantial, because he began this year to set down regularly every thing that passed.—But this part of the work we shall reserve for our next Review.

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*An Account of the Methods pursued in the Treatment of Cancerous and Schirrhous Disorders, and other Indurations. By J. O. Jussatmond, F. R. S. 8vo. 3s. Cadell.*

**T**HIS treatise is divided into three parts, in the first of which the author treats of ulcerated cancers; in the second, he considers schirrhous tumors, or occult cancers; and in the third, the disorder commonly called the milk-breast, or the coagulation of milk, and the consequent formation of matter in the breasts of child-bed women.

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#### 44 *On the Treatment of Cancerous and Schirrhous Disorders.*

The first cancerous patient whose case Mr. Justamond mentions, was a lady who applied to him in 1770. Her disorder was of a very malignant nature, and she had been afflicted with it upwards of thirteen years. It had originally consisted of two schirrhous tumors, which had been removed about three years before, by Mr. Guy's method.

Mr. Justamond was desirous of prescribing to this patient the hemlock bath, recommended in a treatise which he had some time before translated from the German; but fearing to alarm her by such a proposal at first, he had recourse to the internal use of the extract of hemlock, and the external application of the plant in poultices and fomentations. A year and a half passed away, during which time the patient tried the extract of hemlock, the bark, the sublimate, the carrot poultice, and many other things, without obtaining any relief, but on the contrary, grew considerably worse.

Mr. Justamond next had recourse to a topical application, which was a tincture of equal parts of sal ammoniac and iron in rectified spirit of wine, with the addition of oil of vitriol, and oil of tartar. He informs us that he used it in the following manner:

‘ I dipped, says he, a small pencil brush into it, and smeared all the edges of the sores, and every part that was indurated with it, taking all possible care that the liquid should not run down into the ulcers themselves. The part besmeared was then suffered to dry; the wounds were covered with dry lint, and the edges with the same. It being scarce possible to prevent some of the liquid, which was extremely sharp, from insinuating itself into the sores, there was generally a degree of smart accompanying the dressing, but this soon subsided. My patient was directed to repeat this application of the liquid to the edges, and to all the indurated parts two or three times a day, or as often as she could bear it. Finding in a little while that there was a visible alteration for the better, I ventured to use the liquid more freely, and after having smeared all the indurated parts as before, dipt in it some pieces of lint or rag doubled, and layed them wet all over the edges and indurations. By this contrivance the liquid remained active upon the parts for a much more considerable space of time, and the patient had nothing more to do, than with the pencil brush to soak the lint again as often as it became dry, or as she could support the smart. When it appeared that the liquid produced an alteration in the edges and indurated parts, I resolved to wash the ulcers themselves with it, lowering it for this purpose with water, and trying the mixture upon my tongue, ’till I judged that it was sufficiently mild. When it happened that the edges were inflamed or excoriated by the frequent use of this sharp liquid, it was suspended till they were recovered, which they generally were in four and twenty hours.

in



In this manner I proceeded for about three months, at the expiration of which time the pain of the disease was less, the edges and indurations began to soften, and the discharge from the fores was ameliorated.

Though the fore had a better appearance by the use of this remedy, the patient's constitution was not amended; and therefore Mr. Justamond, reflecting on the good effect produced by the liquid applied externally, imagined that a medicine of a similar nature might be given internally with some prospect of success. The flores mariales occurred to him as the preparation nearest to it. Accordingly this medicine was made up into pills, with a solution of gum Arabic. Each pill contained three grains of the flowers; and the patient took at first two pills in the day. Five grains of the flores mariales were soon after put into each pill, and the dose gradually increased, till twelve such pills were taken in the course of the day.

When this method had been continued six weeks, says the author, my patient's health was visibly mended, her complexion cleared, and her strength much recovered. Encouraged by these promising appearances, and finding that the medicine did not disagree, the dose of the martial flowers was increased to ten grains in each pill, of which pills from twelve to twenty were taken in the day. The only inconvenience ever experienced from this, was, a little sickness at stomach now and then, which was easily removed by a tea spoonful of brandy, or some warm wine, and which might perhaps be as much owing to the swallowing of a number of pills in the day, as to any effect of the medicine. It is to be observed, that upon an average my patient may be said to have taken between two and three drachms of the martial flowers every day, for a long continuance, without inconvenience. A few of my cancerous patients have since taken from three drachms to half an ounce of the same medicine in the same space of time, and likewise without inconvenience; though it must be acknowledged, that this medicine, as well as others, can be borne in much larger quantities by some stomachs than others; so that upon the whole, whether the pills are made with five or ten grains of the medicine, it may be as well to restrain the dose to about two drachms in the day, which from experience I am inclined to think, will not disagree with any patient. And even this, is an almost incredible dose, when we consider how seldom this medicine has been prescribed, and when it has, how sparingly.

In three or four months after the commencement of this medicinal course, the patient was greatly mended in every respect, but the surface of the fore had still a cancerous appearance. Mr. Justamond then resolved to try the external application

cation of arsenic; and for this purpose he used a preparation given him by Dr. Morris, which consisted of equal parts of arsenic, copper, tin, and mercury distilled in spirit of wine, and afterwards in oil of vitriol. By the use of the several topical remedies above mentioned, the indurated parts were resolved, and the ulcers perfectly cicatrised; but a knob which remained at the anterior edge of the part affected, afforded reason to suspect that the virus was not totally eradicated.

Among other applications to cancerous ulcers, Mr. Justamond has tried the effects of fixed air, which has been lately so much recommended; but the only advantage it seemed to produce, was that of correcting the bad smell; an end which was answered as successfully by the flowers of zinc, the calamus aromaticus in powder, and other applications.

From all Mr. Justamond's observations on the treatment of this terrible disorder, it appears that the most powerful remedies which he tried were insufficient for effecting a perfect cure of the disease. He has, however, prosecuted the investigation with laudable industry, and at least, ascertained the effects of the various remedies which have been used.

In the second part of the treatise, Mr. Justamond delivers the method of cure which he has used in schirrhous tumors, or occult cancers. In those complaints the principal remedy was also the flores martiales, with such topical applications as were indicated by the state of the tumor.

In the third part of the work, or that which relates to the method of treating the coagulation of milk in the breasts of women, the remedy which the author chiefly used was a composition, consisting of three ounces of salt ammoniac, dissolved in a pint of common water, to which an equal quantity of Hungary water was added. Rags dipped in this liquor a little warm, were applied to the whole surface of the breast; and anodyne fomentations, when necessary, were used with it.

This treatise, in its several parts, comprehends an account of cancerous disorders from their earliest production to the period of their ulcerated state; and in the various stages of their progress, Mr. Justamond has endeavoured to discover the most effectual remedies.

*Practical Observations upon Amputation, and After-Treatment.* By Edward Alanson. 8vo, 1s. 6d. Rivington.

MR. Alanson presents the public with these Observations from a thorough persuasion, that according to the common method of amputating, too little skin is saved. The muscles, he remarks, are generally divided by a perpendicular circular inci-

incision, no union is attempted by the first intention, the parts are dressed with dry lint, and by many the arteries tied with the needle, including nerves, veins, and the adjacent parts. This mode of practice, he farther observes, will frequently produce spasms, brisk symptomatic fever, hæmorrhage, a great discharge of matter, retraction of the muscles, and anastomosis. To prevent these several inconveniencies is the author's design in the treatise now before us.

Mr. Alanson begins with describing the common method of performing amputation, as directed by the most eminent surgical writers, from whom he differs in opinion respecting the application of the tape, the quantity of skin saved, and the manner of executing the double incision.

The author insists strongly on exploding the use of the tape in amputation, for the following reasons:

'The mental sufferings of the diseased will ever be considered, by the humane practitioner, as highly intitled to his attention; and we cannot avoid observing, that after the tourniquet is applied, every moment's delay detains the patient in a most painful state of mind, which the application of the tape greatly prolongs; therefore, if not attended with adequate superior advantages, here is sufficient reason for exploding its use. Therefore, as soon as the tourniquet is applied, let an assistant grasp the limb circularly with both hands, and firmly draw the skin and muscles upwards; the operator now fixing his eye upon the proper part, will make the circular incision through the skin and adipose membrane, with considerable facility and dispatch, and the knife will pass much quicker, in consequence of the tense state in which the parts are supported; and the operator's attention not being confined to cut in the exact direction of the tape, will enable him to execute in half the time.

Hence it appears, that the application of the tape occasions a considerable and anxious state of delay, previous to the circular incision, and likewise is a great obstacle to the speedy execution of it.

Mr. Alanson next describes the method commonly recommended for performing the double incision, which he also thinks capable of great improvement. By adopting the deviation which he advises, he observes that the surgeon will be enabled to saw off the bone much higher than is usually practised; and that the parts so divided, are much more fit to cover the bone, approximate, and unite.

'Instead of applying the knife, says he, close to the edge of the integuments, and dividing the muscles in a circular manner down to the bone, let it be done as follows: we will suppose you are operating upon the thigh; apply the edge of your knife, under the edge of the supported integuments, and cut obliquely  
through

through the muscles; upwards as to the limb, and down to the bone; so as to lay it bare, about three or four fingers breadth higher than you would by the usual perpendicular circular incision, and continue to divide the parts all round the limb, guiding the knife in the same direction: the speedy execution of this incision will be much expedited, by the assistant continuing a firm and steady elevation of the parts, as the knife acts. With the assistance of the leather retractor, as advised by Gooch, and Bromfield, you will now saw off the bone higher than is usually practised, which is a considerable advantage, and coincides with the original intention of the double incision: viz. to prevent a projection of the bone, and form a small cicatrix.

A stump thus formed in the thigh, if you support the parts gently forwards, after the operation; viewing the whole surface of the wound, may be said in some degree to resemble a cone, the apex of which is the extremity of the bone: the parts thus divided, are obviously the best calculated to prevent a sugar-loaf stump.

In considering the treatment after the operation; the author likewise sets out with taking a view of the directions given by the best surgical writers on the subject; and after several pertinent remarks interspersed in the narrative, he relates the method of amputating the thigh, and the after-treatment, as practised in the Liverpool infirmary.

Apply the tourniquet as usual, and let an assistant draw up the skin and muscles, by firmly grasping the limb with both hands, the operator then makes the circular incision as quick as possible through the skin, and *membrana adiposa*, down to the muscles: he next separates the cellular and membranous attachments with the edge of his knife, till as much skin is drawn back as will afterwards cover the surface of the stump with the most perfect ease. The assistant still firmly supporting the parts as before, apply the edge of your knife under the edge of the retracted integuments, and cut obliquely through the muscles upwards as to the limb, and down to the bone; or, in other words, cut in such a direction, as to lay the bone bare about two or three fingers breadth higher than is usually done by the common perpendicular circular incision, and continue to divide, or dig, out the muscles all round the limb, by guiding the knife in the same direction. The part where the bone is to be laid bare, whether two, three, or four fingers breadth higher than the edge of the retracted integuments, or, in other words, the quantity of muscular substance to be digged out, in making the double incision, must be regulated by considering the length of the limb, and the quantity of skin that has been previously saved, by dividing the membranous attachments. The quantity of skin saved, and muscular substance taken out, must be in such an exact proportion to each other, as that by a removal of both, the whole surface of the wound will afterwards be easily covered, and

and the length of the limb not more shortened than is necessary to obtain this end. The bone being now bare all round, is to be divided, as usual, with the saw, and as high up as possible, which will be more easily executed, if the retractor, recommended by Gooch and Bromfield, is first applied, for the support and defence of the soft parts.

After the removal of the limb, let each bleeding artery be gently drawn out with the tenaculum, and tied with a common ligature as naked as possible. The whole surface of the wound is now to be well cleaned with a sponge and warm water, as no doubt any coagula remaining upon its surface, or about the interstices of the muscles, would be a considerable obstruction to that desired union, which we have always in view through the whole plan. Let the skin and muscles be gently brought forwards; then fix the flannel circular roller round the body, and carry it two or three times round the upper part of the thigh, where it will form a sufficient basis, that will greatly add to the support of the skin and muscles; then carry it forwards in a circular direction till it arrives sufficiently near the extremity of the stump, where it is to be fastened as usual. You are now to place the skin and muscles over the extremity of the bone, in such a direction, that the wound shall appear only as a line, drawn down the face of the stump, terminating with an angle, above and below, from the latter of which the ligatures are to be left out, it being the most convenient and dependent part. The skin is easily secured in this posture, by long slips of linen, or lint, about two fingers breadth, spread with cerate, or any soft cooling ointment; these are to be brought from side to side across the face of the stump; then apply over them a little soft lint, with a tow pledget, and compress of linen, the whole to be retained with a light linen roller.

It is the usual custom, to raise the end of the stump from the surface of the bed with pillows; which appears to me very injudicious, when done to the height commonly practised, as it draws the posterior muscles off the face of the stump. I find the best direction is to raise the stump about half a hand's breadth from the surface of the bed.

When the whole of the treatment has been agreeable to the foregoing directions, the parts are generally so free from spasms, that the use of opium is not requisite; the symptomatic fever will likewise be equally moderate; and upon the third or fourth day, when you change the dressings, you will always find that the discharge has been so small, as scarcely to have ran through them: hence it is not often necessary to change the circular bandage, at the first or second dressing; I rather wish to avoid it, till the adhesions are more complete.

By a continuance of the above simple treatment, varied as appearances indicate, the cures have been always completed in less time than usual. In the thigh the stump has frequently healed in nineteen days, so perfectly as to require no further dressing.

Mr. Alanfon informs us, that fince he has praftifed the method of operating and dressing here recommended, he has not obferved the fmalleſt exfoliation, nor ever feen any part of the extremity of the bone after the operation. For by dividing the mufcles as adviſed, and bringing the whole of the foft parts forwards, the bone is immediately concealed, and never gives the leaſt interruption to the progrefs of the cure.

The author remarks, that if we examine the writings of the beſt ſurgical authors, we ſhall find that but few, even in the greateſt run of praftice, have amputated the arm at its articulation with the ſcapula; and likewise be convinced, that but little ſatisfactory information is to be obtained on this ſubject, if we except what has been communicated by Mr. Bromfield. As an extraordinary caſe in ſurgery, Mr. Alanfon gives a diſtinct account of his amputating, with ſucceſs, the arm at its articulation with the ſcapula, in a very unpromiſing caſe of gun-shot wound.

The obſervations are followed by a Poſtſcript, which we ſhall lay before our readers.

‘ Since the foregoing ſheets were finiſhed, I have heard of one inſtance, where hæmorrhage followed our treatment; but it was from the whole ſurface of the ſtump; and I am now in conſultation upon a ſimilar caſe, after an amputation in the fore-arm, occaſioned by a complete ſphacelus of the hand after a compound fracture above the wrift: as this kind of hæmorrhage is a conſequence of a peculiarly diſeaſed ſtate of the whole ſyſtem, it cannot be certainly prevented by a topical treatment of the wound.

‘ I am now of opinion, that, in general, it is the moſt judicious, to place the ſkin ſo as to form the line acroſs the face of the ſtump, from ſide to ſide, the diſcharge is ſo ſmall, that a depending drain is not a neceſſary object: the ligatures are the moſt conveniently left out at the inner angle, in the arm and thigh, on account of the vicinity of the great artery, in the fore-arm and leg, they may be left out at either angle. The patient ſhould be directed to keep out of bed every day after the firſt dressing, as long as his ſtrength will permit, which will conſiderably reſtore and preſerve his general health; the uſual mode of conſining the patient to bed will ſometimes produce or continue hectic fever, debility, diarrhœa, &c.

‘ Thoſe who have had this plan of treatment deſcribed to them, object to it, upon a ſuppoſition that the ligatures will be troubleſome, and get fixed in the part; however, experience is the beſt guide in theſe matters; the ligatures, when made as here directed, have always ſufficiently ſecured the veſſels, ſeparated eaſily and ſpeedily, nor have I ſeen one inſtance, where the cures have been protracted by them.

‘ I am far from thinking that the operation and after-treatment will not yet admit of farther improvements, in the hands of

of the judicious and candid practitioner; however, if he has the success, upon a trial of the means here recommended, that has attended their use under my observation, I hope it will appear, that I have not either misapplied my time, or mislead the public.

As Mr. Alanfon writes from experience, and his observations are judicious, we need not add that they are entitled to the notice of every practitioner in surgery.

*History of a French Loufe; or the Spy of a new Species, in France and England.* 8vo. 3s. Becket.

THE creeping creature, who is the subject of these memoirs, conveys, we believe, though we know not why, a more disgustful idea to an Englishman than to our neighbours the French. The original author, therefore, whoever he is, (for this, we are told, is only a translation,) has ventured to make him the hero of his tale, and used him as a vehicle for satire on some distinguished characters well known in the political world. The pamphlet is apparently written in favour of administration, and with a view of turning into ridicule the ministers of France, the American congress, and the patriots of England. The scene, notwithstanding, is supposed to lie in Paris, and the Loufe is born in the head of a courtesan, from whence he is transplanted to that of a clerk of the parliament, to a countess, to the queen of France, to a washerwoman, and from thence to Mad. D'Eon, with whom he goes to dine at the house of *his excellency* Dr. Benjamin Franklin, of whom he gives the following, not unentertaining, description:

‘By good fortune, says he, I found myself placed directly opposite to monsieur ambassador; and here I must acknowledge that I was not able to forbear laughing heartily when I contemplated the grotesque figure of this original, who, with a vulgar person and mean appearance, affected the air and gestures of a fop. A sun-burnt complexion, a wrinkled forehead, warts in many places, which might be said to be as graceful in him as the moles that distinguished the sweet face of the countess of Barry. With these he had the advantage of a double chin, to which was added a great bulk of nose, and teeth which might have been taken for cloves had they not been set fast in a thick jaw. This, or something very like this, is the true picture of his excellency. As for his eyes I could not distinguish them, because of the situation I was in; and besides a large pair of spectacles hid two thirds of his face.’

He afterwards gives us the history of this illustrious old fox, in a curious dialogue between Monf. Benjamin le Frank and

his neighbour.—As this is one of the best parts of this *leechy* performance, we shall here subjoin it for the entertainment of our readers:

*B. le Frank.* Dr. F. was born at Boston, in New England; his parents were in low circumstances, and could not give him a very liberal education; his first employment was that of a workman to a printer. Behold him then in reality a *man of letters*; for you know, neighbour, that a printer is more than any other a *man of letters*, since if there were no printers we could not have any books. He gained near half a crown a day by his labour, and having access to the books in his master's shop, he lost no opportunity of instructing himself; his favourite study was physics, and his favourite author in that science the abbé Nollet, whose speculations in electricity were much in his taste, and to this kind of reading he devoted all his leisure. At the end of some years he took a fancy to go and settle in Philadelphia, which being a more considerable city than Boston, he hoped he should sooner find the means of making his fortune. Being still young when he arrived at Philadelphia, he soon spent all the money he had saved in Boston, and was obliged to engage with a printer there, with whom he lived four years. During this interval he contrived to amass the sum of sixty guineas; when growing weary of his trade, and having in his physical researches made an important discovery; namely, that for four-pence a day a man may provide himself with diet, lodging, and every other necessary: "Well," said he, "the money which I have laid by will carry me on a long time, as I can be contented with so small an income."—He then quitted his master, and lived privately, subsisting for many years upon four-pence a day.

*Neighbour.* I cannot conceive how he did it; to me it seems impossible.

*B. le Frank.* And yet nothing is more easy; it requires only resolution: his method was (for I have taken him for my pattern) to purchase for three-pence a quantity of potatoes, which served him for bread and meat both, and of which there was sufficient to subsist on a whole week. A baker roasted them for a halfpenny; and he bought of a milk woman daily a halfpenny worth of milk; all this amounted to no more than seven pence a week; he gave a penny a day for his lodgings in a garret, because he liked neatness and convenience, otherwise he might have accommodated himself at a cheaper rate. He drank small beer mixed with water, and this cost him two pence a week; the remainder he laid by for dress and pocket-money; for he employed nobody to wash for him, or to mend his linen and stockings.

Now let us calculate, and you will be convinced that it is not impossible to live upon this sum. Four-pence a day makes twenty-eight pence a week.



- His potatoes, the dressing of them, and his milk, }  
cost him every week. ————— }
- His lodging. ————— 7
- And his beer ————— 2

Total 16.

Thus, out of eight-and-twenty pence a week, there remained twelve to make a figure with.

*Neighbour.* Your account is clearly made out; but I who gain half a crown a day find it difficult to subsist; how then could I make four-pence a day serve me?

*B. le Frank.* Not unless you were like him, a doctor.

*Neighbour.* But how did this gentleman of four-pence a day raise himself to his present elevated station?

*B. le Frank.* By little and little. The gentleman acquired a profound knowledge of electricity; he commanded the thunderbolt to fall where he pleased; he bid it roar at a distance, and at a distance it roared: he stood on one side of a river, and electrified a dog on the other; the poor animal made piteous moans, but knew not who caused its sufferings. By these rare and wonderful talents he rose to be a collector of the customs for the king of England in the port of Philadelphia, which place brought him in five hundred pounds sterling a year (about twelve thousand livres).

*Neighbour.* Oh mighty well! this was somewhat better than four-pence a day: but how could he contrive to spend such a sum?

*B. le Frank.* As to that he acquitted himself extremely well; he took a wife, he had children, a cellar stored with good liquors; a plentiful table. He was then a zealous royalist; because it was for his advantage to be so. He procured his son a commission in the army; and this son continuing steady to his duty and attachment for his Britannic majesty, is still governor of New Jersey for the king. The doctor understands his personal interests perfectly well; perhaps he was apt to attend to them too much, if we may judge by the event; for after being a considerable time in possession of this employment, he was very politely thanked for his services and turned out of it.

*Neighbour.* So, then, he had recourse to his four-pence a day again; a very disagreeable change to him, surely.

*B. le Frank.* He left no means untried to get back his place, but he did not succeed; hence originated his animosity to the king; and even to the whole British nation.

*Neighbour.* But how did he subsist?

*B. le Frank.* Electricity having taught him that there is fire every where, and in every thing, he took a fancy that by this discovery he might live in the grand style: accordingly he electrified the minds of the Americans, making them believe that all the evils they suffered proceeded from St. James's palace, in London; that in that palace the resolution was taken to consider

them as flaves, and to force them by an arbitrary exertion of power to pay all the taxes and imposts that intereft and caprice could invent. There needed no more to excite a revolt among the doctor's patients; he was fent to London with propofitions from them full of infolence, and even injurious to the majesty of the throne: these propofitions were rejected as the electrifier expected. When he returned to his own country, he enumerated injuries on the part of the British government towards them which never existed; he enflamed their resentments, counselled them to shake off their chimerical dependence on their mother country; held out the prospect of a glorious freedom to them and their posterity; commenced their legislator, established a form of republican government, and subjected them to the despotism of the congress.'

After this our author makes himself merry with the famous Mr. L—g—t, author of the Annals of the Eighteenth Century, and his mistress, with their adventures at Paris and London. This part of our hero's history is rather dull and tedious. There is some humour, however, in the visit which follows to the duke D'A—gné, and the letter to him from the count de V—g—nes, wherein the French minister, modestly supposing Great Britain already subjected to Lewis XVI. fends the duke a plan of their future proceedings, and informs him that our king and queen, with all the royal family, are to be carried to St. Germain's, the male children to enter into the ecclesiastical state, and be made cardinals; the parliament of England is to be split into several little ones, like the parliaments of France, with many other pious designs of the same kind, which are to be adopted as soon as Lewis takes possession of this country. This thought is spun out by appointing lord Sh—— (to whom the Loufe is transferred) viceroy of Ireland for the king of Spain, and the marquis of R——, named by the American congress, protector of the liberties of Scotland. The M. and his company are thus described:

'—The M. was a little ugly black man, very lean, his eyes sunk in his head, which was covered with a peruke; he seems to be about fifty years of age, and enjoyed an estate of forty thousand pounds sterling a year: he hated his sovereign, because, having once enjoyed his favour, he had not been able to preserve it; and ever since his disgrace, he had employed his utmost endeavours to ruin his successor, and the other secretaries of state.

'Second, Ch—F—x, his person thick and short, a man of wit, artful, and intriguing, who sought to retrieve his affairs by any means, and to make his fortune in the minority, since he could not do it in the opposite party.

'Third, General B——, a zealous partizan of the opposition. The ministers hoped, that by giving him the command

mand of an army, he would abandon his former connections, and serve his country and his prince with fidelity. This brave man, firm to his old attachments, accepted the command of the troops, and gave them up to the Americans, becoming himself a prisoner of war with them.

Fourth. The Admiral, so filed by way of eminence by the rest of the guests. This man of consummate experience, although one of the party who opposed the king and his ministers, and a kinsman of my lord duke, was nevertheless chosen by his majesty to command a considerable fleet fitted out to attack an inferior one of France. Swayed by the advice of his cousin, and influenced by the interests of his party, he acted in such a manner as to gain no advantage over the enemy, although superior to them in number; but on the contrary, gave them an opportunity to boast, and with reason, that they had been conquerors.

This, with two or three strictures of the like kind, form the outlines of this piece, which, though not void of merit, is stretched to the tiresome length of a hundred and thirty pages, the whole essence of which might easily have been contracted into half that number.

The French Louse is, upon the whole, a Louse of some parts and abilities, though, like other geniusses, he rather takes too much pains to display them. Small as this animal is, we should have liked him much better if he had been a little smaller.

*Zoraida, a Tragedy, as it is acted at the Theatre Royal in Drury-Lane: To which is added, A Postscript, containing Observations on Tragedy. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Keatsly.*

*Facit tum confidera, cum risu destituti sunt*, is a precept of the great lord Verulam's, which discovers an intimate knowledge of mankind; for so prone is human nature to dwell on the defects, rather than on the beauties of any subject, whether it relate to moral conduct, or literary ability, that censure, in the one case, though meaning in its origin the expression only of a general opinion, has, by constant usage, become synonymous with blame; and criticism, in the other, though denoting simply judgment, whether of praise, or disapprobation, has been generally applied to the discovery of the faults of a performance; when it might, with equal propriety, have been employed to select its beauties, and ascertain their real worth: nay, not content with employing the weapons of argument, either specious, or solid, criticism has but too frequently dipped its darts in the gall of satire. But of all criterions, ridicule is that which should be last applied in the invest-

igation of any subject; for so great is its sway over the human heart, that the exulting laugh of supercilious ignorance, or the malignant sneer of apprehensive envy, will generally gain more proselytes, than the candid decisions of calm unbiassed reason. Most prudently, therefore, has the great restorer of sound philosophy, and solid sense, guarded us against this contagion by the rule quoted above; guided by which, we sit down regardless of the invectives which have been thrown on the performance before us, to review it with coolness and impartiality.

The fable is entirely eastern, and the characters, sentiments, and language, founded wholly on Turkish manners; the close adherence to which has involved the author in traditions, and expressions, so different from those to which this country is accustomed, that it necessarily must cast a transient obscurity over his piece upon the stage, and expose him to the ridicule of the ignorant; but, as he observes in his postscript, this is not to be weighed against the lasting disgrace to which the falsifying national manners would assuredly expose a writer in the closet; and, he might have added, against the reputation which the just painting of national manners will there secure to him; for one of the most approved plays in our language, the *Siege of Damascus*, has justly acquired no small share of its fame, from this very consideration.

In the conduct of the fable, the great event which brings on the catastrophe is neither so studiously *hid*, as to make the denouement the unexpected solution of an incomprehensible enigma, nor so inartificially discovered, as not to afford sufficient ground for curiosity, and expectation. For this purpose, the obscure character of the dervise appears properly adapted; from whom, at the close of the fifth scene of the second act, we are led to expect some event, though we are ignorant which way it will turn. In the progress of the fable, there are several situations well calculated to produce a stage effect, and strongly to interest the passions; particularly the scene in the third act, where Almaimon is going to kill Zoraida; that in the fourth act, where she hears of Almaimon's death; and the situation of the two lovers in the mosque, in the fifth act. In Almaimon are depicted the transports of a mind torn with conflicting passions, too forcible, perhaps, for a just painting of European manners, but certainly not over-charged for the violence of the Asiatic nations. In Selim we behold the amiable exertion of benevolence and magnanimity in relieving the distressed, and forgiving the guilty; while Osman is an instance of a mind deeply impressed with a sense of its injuries, yet of virtue sufficient to be won back to its duty by admiration and gratitude. The sentiments which arise from this display of cha-

character in the fourth act, (where the author seems best to have succeeded in this respect) gives no less energy to this act than the display of situation does to the fifth.

In regard to the ornaments of diction, the fable being eastern, a greater latitude in their use is allowable, than would be proper in a play, founded on western manners, as the author's quotation from Jones's Nadir Shah sufficiently evinces. He has, indeed, profited by this propriety to enrich his language with variety of images and allusions; but as we wish not to forestall the curiosity of those who have not read the piece, we shall only observe, without quoting any instances, that the author merits praise for the local propriety which he has preserved in most of his allusions, as in those of the Nile, the Pharos, the Pyramids, with several others naturally adapted to the situation of the scene. Nor has he been less studious of propriety in his observance of the peculiar customs and prejudices of the Mahometan superstition. Indeed, he seems perfectly well acquainted with the distinguishing tenets of the Moslem mythology; such as predestination, and the ministry of angels; the chief of whom, according to Mahomet, are Gabriel, the angel of salvation; Israfil, appointed to blow the last trumpet; and Agraël, the angel of death, called also the inexorable angel, and the angel of destruction. He has taken notice also of that peculiar idea of Mahomet's, that the dews of the waters of Zenzibil, one of the rivers of paradise, are as fragrant as beds of spices; and that the Houris are perfectly chaste, and modest as beautiful, which is the account the Koran gives, though contrary to the idea generally entertained of them. Many other instances occur in the piece of this observance of the custom; as the allusion to Mahomet's battles and conquests, the tree of Zedrat, feigned by Mahomet to overshadow the mount of Alha, the harps of Paradise, the cleaving the moon in twain, with several others. We the rather dwell on these instances of propriety in painting eastern manners, because, though almost every one can discover the beauty and justness of a general image, yet from want of knowing the history of Mahomet, and his peculiar traditions, many are so far from seeing the merit of this propriety, that they are inclined to treat as absurd what is, in reality, the effect of judgment; of which the ribaldry which has been thrown on the asseveration, 'by the seven heavens,' in this play, is a glaring instance; for it is not only most consonant to a sacred part of Mahomet's history, viz. his Night Journey to the Mount of God, but had for years passed unobjected to in the Siege of Damascus. On mentioning the Siege of Damascus,

we

we cannot but take notice of one passage in *Zoraida*, in which its author seems professedly to have entered the lists with Mr. Hughes. The passage we mean is, the speech of Almaimon to his soldiers, in the night-scene in the third act, before he attacks the camp of Selim; compared with the speech of Caled at the end of the fourth act of the *Siege of Damascus*. It is, indeed, true, that as Caled and Almaimon are both Mahometans, the objects of reward which they hold out to their soldiers, as well as the sources whence they are drawn must be nearly the same; yet the author of *Zoraida* has so contrived to vary his terms, that he preserves an appearance of originality. We have annexed both passages, and shall leave the reader to determine the preference; which he will probably adjudge according as the freedom and continued harmony of blank verse, or the uniform flow and more obvious melody of rhyme, is most agreeable to his ear.

‘ ——— Prepare ye now for boldest deeds,  
And know the prophet will reward your valour.  
Think that ye all to certain triumph move,  
Who falls in fight yet meets the prize above.  
Here in the gardens of eternal spring,  
While birds of paradise around you sing,  
Each with his blooming beauty by his side  
Shall drink rich wines that in full rivers glide;  
Breathe fragrant gales o’er fields of spice that blow,  
And gather fruits immortal as they grow;  
Extatic bliss shall your whole powers employ,  
And every sense be lost in every joy.

*Siege of Damascus, End of act iv.’*

‘ ——— Remember the reward  
Our dying prophet promis’d. Fall who may,  
In such a cause, the everlasting gates  
Of paradise shall open to receive  
His mounting spirit. There, while crouds of warriors  
Hail his arrival, and the rose-lipt Hours  
Invite him to their arms, his weary limbs  
In spicy Zenzibil’s ambrosial flood  
Shall bathe voluptuous; from the nectar’d fruits  
That blooms spontaneous on its velvet brink  
Imbibe eternity of youth, or laid  
On beds of flow’rs, where odoriferous winds  
Breathe heavenly fragrance, drain the sparkling goblet  
Crown’d with the luscious grape, till ev’ry sense  
Be molten with delight, and every hero  
Absorb’d in visions of celestial bliss,  
Lose all remembrance of his earthly toils.

*Zoraida, act iii. scene 1:*

Have

Having thus with that candour, which first seeks for what is worthy praise, marked what, in our opinion, entitles Zoraida to an attentive perusal, the impartiality of criticism requires we should also note its defects, before we can with any confidence recommend it to the public. And here we cannot but remark, that the succession of events crowds too fast on the imagination, without allowing time for the heart to interest itself sufficiently in each ; that Almaimon, as one of the principal characters, acts not sufficiently from himself, but becomes the instrument of every new design ; and that the narrative of the dervise, though necessary to the unfolding the story, should, if possible, have been made shorter ; for, according to the author's own principles in his Postscript, a happy catastrophe should be very short. The reflexions of Zoraida also, in her soliloquies, wear sometimes the garb of more serious instruction than is generally expected, or regarded from the stage. The versification, though flowing and harmonious, is, if any thing, too elaborate, while the length of the periods sometimes exceeds the natural exertions of the organs of speech, and renders it difficult to unite the animation of sincerity with the melodious cadence of the voice.

The Postscript annexed to the tragedy was drawn up, the author informs us in his advertisement, as a defence of his play against the animadversions of the daily critics of the newspapers, in which we cannot but think he has in a great measure succeeded. Its purport, to use his own words, is to shew upon what a tragic poet must place his chief dependence of success on the stage, and upon what in the closet ; how far the union of these different views is compatible, and how they must be blended so as to produce upon the whole the greatest effect. It contains many judicious remarks, and the author seems so conversant with the subject, and so capable of doing justice to it, that we heartily wish his health and leisure may permit him to complete the plan for which he informs us he has been long collecting materials.—We could willingly indulge ourselves with making extracts from these observations, but as we have already extended this article beyond the bounds usually allotted to such subjects, we shall content ourselves with observing, that the author has judiciously availed himself of the opinions of the best masters of criticism, both ancient and modern ; and recommend his remarks to the notice of all who, in this fastidious and inattentive age, exert their efforts to obtain the suffrage of a public audience,

*The Fatal Falsehood: a Tragedy. As it is acted at the Theatre Royal in Covent-Garden. By the Author of Percy. 2vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.*

**T**HIS tragedy, which has, in our opinion, more intrinsic merit than most of those which have appeared on the stage for some time past, mer, like the heroine of it, with a fate which it by no means deserved.—The fable is simple, and in general well conducted; the sentiments not strained, or too refined, but such as naturally arise from a few interesting events; the characters well sustained and contrasted; and the diction smooth, elegant, and perspicuous.

From many beautiful passages which occur in this tragedy, to prove the truth and justice of our opinion with regard to its merit, we shall select only one short scene between Orlando and Julia, in the fourth act, which, had it been properly represented, must, we think, have deeply affected the most insensible audience.—Orlando, it should be premised, already engaged to Emmelina, had fallen in love with Julia, the mistress of his friend, and just on the point of being married to him: he comes in to Julia, and thus discovers it to her:

*Orlando.* Julia in tears?

*Julia.* Alas! you have undone me!

Behold the wretched victim of her promise?

I urg'd, at your request, the fatal suit

Which has destroy'd my peace; Rivers suspects me,

And I am wretched.

*Orlando.* Better 'tis to weep

A temporary ill, than weep for ever;

That anguish must be mine.

*Julia.* Ha! weep for ever?

Can they know wretchedness who know not love?

*Orlando.* Not love! oh, cruel friendship! tyrant honour!

*Julia.* Friendship! alas, how cold is that to love!

*Orlando.* Too well I know it; both alike destroy me,

I am the slave of both, and more than either

The slave of honour.

*Julia.* If you then have felt

The bitter agonies——

*Orlando.* Talk you of agonies?

You who are lov'd again? oh, they are mine,

The pangs, the agonies of hopeless passion,

Yes, I do love—I doat, I die for love.

*Julia.* I understand you——Emmelina!

*Orlando.* (Falls at her feet.)

Julia!

*Julia.*

How?

*Orlando.* Nay, never start—I know I am a villain;

I know thy hand is destin'd to another,

That



That other is my friend: that friend the man  
To whom I owe my life. Yes, I adore thee;  
Spite of the black ingratitude, adore thee;  
I doat upon my friend, and yet betray him,  
I'm bound to Emmelina, yet forsake her,  
I honour virtue while I follow guilt,  
I love the noble Rivers more than life,  
But Julia more than honour.

Julia. Hold! astonishment  
Has seiz'd my tips; whence sprung this monstrous daring?

Orlando. (Revs.) From despair.

Julia. What can you hope from me?

Orlando. Death! I nor hope, nor look for aught but death.  
Think'st thou I need reproof? think'st thou I need  
To be reminded that my love's a crime?

That every moral tie forbids my passion,  
And angry heaven will show'r its vengeance on me?

But mark—I do not, will not, can't repent;

I do not even wish to love thee less;

I glory in my crime. Come, crown my misery,

Triumph, exult in thy pernicious beauty.

Then shab me with the praises of my rival.

The man on earth—whom most I ought to love.

Julia. I leave thee to remorse, and to that penitence  
Thy crime demands. (Going.)

Orlando. A moment stay.

Julia. I dare not.

Orlando. Hear all my rival's worth, and all my guilt.

The unsuspecting Rivers sent me to thee,

To plead his cause; I basely broke my trust,

And, like a villain, pleaded for myself.

Julia. Did he? Did Rivers? Then he loves me still—  
Quick let me seek him out.

Orlando. (Takes out the dagger.) First take this dagger,

Had you not forc'd it from my hand to-day,

I had not liv'd to know this guilty moment;

Take it, present it to the happy Rivers,

Tell him to plunge it in a traitor's heart,

Tell him his friend, Orlando, is that traitor,

"Tell him Orlando forg'd the guilty tale,

"Tell him Orlando is the only foe,"

Who at the altar would have murder'd Rivers,

And then have died himself.

Julia. Farewel—repent—think better!

Though we admire the general structure and conduct of this  
play, candour obliges us to acknowledge, that the fifth act is  
not equal to the others, the catastrophe being perplexed, inar-  
tificial, and attended with some improbable circumstances, and  
events that render it rather disgusting and unnatural: the death  
of Emmelina is contrary to poetical justice, as involving the  
innocent

innocent in the same punishment with the guilty; and the spectator would undoubtedly have been better pleased to see Orlando fall by the hand of Rivers, whom he had injured, than by his own.

We cannot conclude this article without observing, that unsuccessful as this tragedy has hitherto been on the stage, it cannot fail giving great pleasure in the closet: we therefore warmly recommend it to the perusal of our readers.

*The Times: a Comedy.* As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in Drury-Lane. By Mrs. Griffith. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Fielding and Walker.

THAT wicked wit, Sheridan, has, like the foolish bird that bewrays his own nest, destroyed himself and his interest, by writing above the level of his cotemporaries; for, as the inimitable Garrick, whilst he remained on the stage, put us out of humour with almost every other actor, so doth the School for Scandal put us out of conceit with almost every other modern comedy. The piece now before us would, otherwise, probably have met with a very different reception from that which it hath received.—*The Times*, written by Mrs. Griffith, to whom the world has been obliged for some entertaining and much applauded performances, is not without a considerable share of merit; but we have been lately treated, as was just now hinted, with two or three such delicacies, that a good, plain dish, though ever so wholesome, and well-dressed, is disregarded. This comedy, in spite of all its faults and imperfections, is not ill written; the characters, particularly that of Sir W. Woodley, well drawn, and properly sustained; the moral inculcated is an excellent one (which, by the bye, is more than we can say of our friend Brinsley's), and is not inartificially adapted to the present system of manners; the dialogue is, often, sprightly and entertaining, though, sometimes, rather languid. The principal fault of the comedy lies, perhaps, in the fable and its incidents, which is neither new nor sufficiently interesting to engage our attention. The catastrophe is seen from the beginning, and the early discovery of it deprives us too soon of the agreeable sensation with which we love to indulge ourselves in with regard to the conclusion.

The reader, however, we think, will find in the closet something to recompense him for his disappointment on the stage, and will, probably, be of opinion with us, that though *The Times* does not stand in the first rank of modern comedies, it is superior to many that have been more frequently represented, and received a larger portion of fame and profit than the author of this piece has hitherto been fortunate enough to acquire.

*The*

*The Tutor of Truth. By the Author of the Pupil of Pleasure, &c.*  
2 vol. 12mo. 5s. sewed. Richardson and Urquhart.

A Work of this author's, entitled, *The Pupil of Pleasure*, exemplified that part of a late celebrated system which led immediately to voluptuousness, hypocrisy, and seduction;—the intention of these volumes is to illustrate a much better, as well as a much more brilliant system, the system of integrity and truth.

The hero of this production protects the innocence he might have destroyed, spares the chastity he might have violated, and preserves the wife he might have ruined. He is prudent without deviating from truth; and employs all his fire, spirit, and personal advantages, in the cause of virtue. There is a great variety of characters and incidents interwoven into this agreeable novel, which not only contribute to render the fable interesting, but to enforce the moral, which the author has chosen for a motto, and with which he concludes, viz. 'However hypocrisy may flourish for a time, even its happiest moments are clouded, and truth shall at last prevail.'

The characters of the Hewsons, in this performance, are as laughable as they are original, and place the detestable and detested system of Chesterfieldism in a point of view truly ridiculous.

*Mr. Gabriel Hewson to Robert De Grey, Esq.*

'Sir,

'My brother (dear to me by affinity of blood, and by the co-adjointing bonds of a settled friendship) my brother and I, sir, have lately been much enveloped in *the deep abyss of meditation*. The additions to our fortunes, have, as is too generally the case, brought with them additions of *carking care*, and *perturbed reflection*—we find it impossible to enjoy ourselves as we used to do, before the benevolence of fate distinguished us by her splendid favours. My brother is unable to take the salutary exercises of the fields and forests, *crown'd with leafy honours*; and I, for my part, can find neither gaiety in Horace, nor argument in Tully. We conceive something should be done to make riches *fit easy* on us. We believe books will not do this for me, nor hounds for him.—In fine, we are solicitous, *even to a considerable degree of anxiety*, to acquire a relish of those exterior ornamentals which so particularly mark you and Captain Carlisle, from all men of our acquaintance. We understand the captain is shortly to be at the Green; and therefore, as your indulging nature has very often pressed upon us an invitation, we could, conjointly, with it might be agreeable to your leisure, and consonant to your convenience, to permit us to pass a few days, under the *sanctification of your hospitality* while the captain is with you, that we may have the advantage of making ourselves very passable copies from the *re-*  
*iterated*

iterated imitation of so admirable an original. My brother Henry and I, Sir, are very impatient for the honour of your answer to this our *consequential request*. Sir, I am, your's reverentially,  
 'Gabriel Hewson.'

Mr. Henry Hewson to Robert De Grey, Esq.

Hon. Guardian that was.

I understand that Gab has *'form'd* you of our resolution to be *bettermost* persons; whereof the reason's good and natural, seeing that we are not the folks we *was*; seeing we are richer; our *ideers* are no more the same they *was* than any thing, and I *ba'* put it *into*'s head to see what hand may be made on us, *supposin* we had a good slightly *moral* before us. For certain, the captain is as fine a pattern as need be taken for any man's *sample*, and you are no small fool at making a bow yourself. You and he, therefore, are the men we mean to cut out by; and my Hetty would have no *jection* to make a sample of your daughter, who every body must own, has more the jig of a gentlewoman than any body within ten miles o' *her*. I send these few lines by Joe, just to clap brother Gab's letter, as it were, on the back, and do the thing more *plutely*; for, certainly, the more *parsons* write to a man out of one family, the more respectful. We understand also that you are to have visitors *go lore*, over and above the captain. *That* we have no sort of *rejection* to: 'case why? We are sure for *sustain*, none are harboured at Prudence Green but your *tip-tap* *space*. So much the better for *us*; 'case why? As we go on purpose to make a hand on't, and get as much as we can out of every body, why we can take one bit of haviour from one, another bit from another, and so on, till we are *up* to the whole gig of the thing. Hetty is 'ene almost ready to fly over the moon upon *casion* of this—she's a *duced* cute one, at taking any thing in hand she has a mind to, and I *suspect* she'll pull the feathers out of the fine ones till she's as pretty a bird as the best of them. I'd lay too o' my teeth to a *tester* that she bridles and briggles to a nicety, in less time than I shall want to make me doff har with decency; for, to tell you the truth, I have a cussed way of being *cover'd* in company; and, I think, it's a pity you was not guardian of my manners, as well as my money.—But I have said enough to shew you what I would be at, and therefore I have no *casion* to make a long affair *out*, like master Gab, who, I don't doubt, has muddled his brains never so long, to write you a fine long *rigamorol*, and pick and choose words out of *diksonmeiry*. Mayhap I may be one of your better sort as soon as he, for all his scholarship: not that I would have you *magine*, 'quire, I don't think Gab knows how to handle a pen; but I think a man may talk a little *plainer* than Gab: aye, and write a little plainer too, for I do *sure* you, parson of our parish, who put on his gown at *warfity*, has sometimes enough to do to make him *out*, when he writes his *flourididdles* to me, and Hetty says, he is no more fit for *pleneess* than my dog Dashgrove. But this is *between* ourselves, 'quire. I have written my paper *all through*,  
 purpose

purpose 'case you should not be *sented*, and if it had been more I would *ha'* gone to the end *on't*, I *'jurs* you; for you are juth the sort of man I like, and, after all, I don't know when I come to set *this* over against *that*, whether I sha'n't take more of the bettermost person from *you*, than from the captain himself. I am, with Hetty's love to miss De Grey,

Your dutiful friend to command, Henry Hewson.

'P. S. I think I would not have you say to any of the folks at the Green, what *lay* Gab and I are upon; for, 'tis natural to think, gentlemen and ladies (who have bought breeding and *pluteness* dear) may not choose to have, as it were, their pockets pickt *on't*, by a couple of chaps who come *a purpose* to carry off the *best part* of 'em. I should not like it myself.'

Mr. Medway's is a very original and ludicrous, though, on the whole, an amiable and even respectable character.—We think that captain Carlisle might have perceived sooner, that Lucia had no aversion to him. It is true that love is jealous, and ready to misconstrue, to its own torment, every word or action of its object; but the extreme blindness of Carlisle, in the instance alluded to, seems unnatural, in a man who, even when incidents occur, that in the strongest manner raise his jealousy, or that lead him to believe his passion is hopeless, possesses a degree of recollection, calmness, and self-composure, that borders upon indifference.—The characters, however, on the whole, are well supported, and the Tutor of Truth is a pleasant and instructive companion.

ridentem dicere verum

Quid vetat? —————

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Beschreibung des Koenigreichs Slavonien und des Herzogthums Syrmien; or, a Description of the Kingdom of Slavonia and the Duchy of Syrmia; by the late Mr de Taube. Book III. containing the Topography of those Countries. 2vo. Leipzig, (German).*

THE former part of this work has already been noticed in our Review. The present contains an accurate topographical account of countries hitherto but very little known abroad.

Lower Slavonia, here described, consists of two parts; the Civil Province, or interior part of the kingdom, inhabited by citizens and country people; and the Military Settlements inhabited by a particular kind of regimented militia; on the frontiers of Turkey.

The Civil Province is divided into three counties, or shires; Bsek, the county-town of Verovitcz, is thinly inhabited and subject to all the inconveniencies of a marshy soil. Yet white mulberry trees thrive there, and yield a considerable annual income of about one florin, or two shillings and four-pence each tree. A most expensive stone-road, has of late years been constructed of somewhat more than one English mile and a quarter in length, over swamps, and is said to have cost the enormous sum of six hundred thousand florins.

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Syrmia

Syrmia is a most fertile country, abounding in excellent wine, and other rich natural productions, yet still susceptible of very great improvements. The most considerable lordship in it, called Illock, has formerly been granted by Charles VI. to the famous Count Odescalchi; and is now, by its present proprietor, Prince Bracciano at Rome, lett for an annual rent of thirty thousand florins.

The military districts and settlements on the Turkish frontiers, are mountainous, rocky, little cultivated, inhabited, by a militia, exempt from the payment of contributions and tythes; but paying some taxes under other names, for the support of their own officers. Their country has no beggars, but a number of thieves and robbers: great pains have however been taken during these later times, for civilizing its inhabitants. The country inhabited by the regiment of Peterwaradine though exceedingly fertile, is yet so thinly peopled, that a square German league of its very best districts scarce contains above two or three small hamlets, containing altogether hardly forty families. Almost all the citizens of Peterwaradine are Germans; and few of them trades-people. The fortress has cost a very great sum.

Almost all the trade of this district is carried on in the Hungarian town New-Satz, which lies over against Peterwaradine; and having in 1751, been declared a free town, where Christians of whatever sect are allowed a free exercise of their respective religions, now affords a very striking instance of the effects of religious toleration. For though this place in 1751, contained only four thousand inhabitants, their number has since that year increased to more than eight thousand, and still continues increasing.

The Turkish frontier-place Gradiska, has, at the desire of the Turks, been strongly and regularly fortified by French engineers.

These countries formerly abounded with a variety of remarkable antiquities, now defaced or destroyed by their illiterate and barbarous inhabitants.

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*Aristoteles und Basesow, oder Fragmente über Erziehung und Schulaufweisen bey den Alten und Neuern, or, Aristotle and Basesow; or Fragments on Education and Schools, among the Ancients and Moderns; by Frederick Gedicke, Prof. at the Gymnasium of Frederickswerder at Berlin. 8vo. Berlin. (German.)*

THE short instructive book consists partly of translations, and partly of original Essays. The valuable fragments concerning education, here collected, translated and commented on, are drawn from Aristotle, Plato, Quintilian, a supposed Letter from Theano the wife of Pythagoras, and a passage from Gellius, concerning nurses. All these fragments are well chosen, faithfully translated, and illustrated with judicious notes and remarks.

The original essays treat of the methods of teaching children to read; of the study of languages in general; of that of the Greek and Latin tongues in particular; of the most essential requisites for the improvement of schools; and of the means of raising the revenues required for the expence of these essential improvements.

Mr. Gedicke thinks the Greek language ought to have been preferred to the Latin, for the purpose of a general and common language for the learned: and that even now, children after having made a tolerable progress in their own native languages, ought to be taught Greek before Latin; but not to begin with the Greek New Testament, nor to be accustomed to translate Greek into Latin.

The

The best means for improving education and schools, in his opinion, would be to raise the salaries and rank of school-masters; to separate schools designed for the learned, from these designed for common professions; and to establish a supreme board or department for the general direction of all the schools of a state.

To these translations and original essays, Mr. Gedicke has subjoined an Ode of the celebrated Professor Basedow, at Dessau, a gentleman highly distinguished by his enthusiastic philanthropy, by his active zeal and persevering and not unsuccessful exertions, for the reformation of schools, and the improvement of education: *clarum olim et venerabile nomen!*

*Von der Güte und Weisheit Gottes in der Natur: or, The Goodness and Wisdom of God in Nature; considered by Henry Sander. 1 Vol. 8vo. Carlruhe. (German.)*

A Very eloquent, instructive, and meritorious contemplation on the divine perfection, as displayed in the creation and government of the world; treating, among a variety of other subjects, of the immensity of the creation; the general concatenation of things; agriculture and clothing necessarily entering into the plan of nature; that the government and providence of God necessarily direct and influence the smallest as well as the greatest objects in nature: immense riches of nature; distribution of natural productions, especially of animals and vegetables; uses of rocks in the sea; arrangements of different countries; seeds of plants; care of nature for cold countries, Iceland, for instance, Kamptscharka, Lapland, Greenland, &c. real importance of a variety of seeming trifles to nature; of mosses, shrubs, lakes, mountains, forests, mines, grasses, marine plants, insects; natural revolutions.

All these, and many other subjects, are here contemplated and displayed, enforced and applied, with such a degree of acuteness, and such a warmth of eloquence, as to do equal credit to the author's mind and heart:

*Leben, Thaten, Reisen und Tod eines sehr klugen und sehr artigen Vier-jährigen Kindes; or, the Life, Actions, Travels, and Death of a Child, very sensible and well behaved, four Years of Age; Christian Henry Heineken, of Lübeck, recorded by his Teacher, Christian de Schoeneich. 8vo. 15 Sheets. Goettinguen and Lübeck. (German.)*

THE child, whose life is here minutely recorded, was indeed one of the most memorable phenomena the world ever beheld. He was born at Lübeck, Feb. 6, 1721, and died there, June 27, 1725; after having displayed the most amazing proofs of intellectual talents. He had not completed his first year of life, when he already knew and recited the principal facts contained in the five books of Moses, with a number of verses on the creation. In his fourteenth month he knew all the history of the Bible; in his thirtieth month, the history of the nations of antiquity, geography, anatomy, the use of maps, and nearly eight thousand Latin words: before the end of his third year, the history of Denmark, and the genealogy of the crowned heads of Europe; in his fourth year, the doctrines of divinity, with their proofs from the Bible; ecclesiastical history; the Institutions; two hundred hymns with their tunes; eighty Psalms; entire chapters of the Old and New Testament; sixteen hundred

verses and sentences from ancient Latin classics; almost the whole *Orbis Pictus* of Comenius, whence he had derived all his knowledge of the Latin tongue; arithmetics; the history of the European empires and kingdoms; could point out in the maps whatever place he was asked for, or passed by in his journeys, and recite all the ancient and modern historical anecdotes relating to it. His stupendous memory caught and preserved every word he was told; his ever active imagination used, at whatever he saw or heard, instantly to apply, according to the laws of association of ideas, some examples or sentences from the Bible, from geography, from profane or ecclesiastical history, from the *Orbis Pictus*, or from ancient classics. At the court of Denmark he delivered twelve speeches, without once faltering; and underwent public examinations on a variety of subjects, especially the history of Denmark. He spoke German, Latin, French, and Low Dutch, and was exceedingly good natured and well-behaved, but of a most tender and delicate bodily constitution; never ate any solid food, but chiefly subsisted on nurse's milk; and, notwithstanding his weak state of health, sought all his satisfaction, pleasure, and amusement, in the acquisition of knowledge.

What a pity that the imprudent parents and teachers of so admirable a child, probably from avaricious motives, could strain his mental faculties, in so tender an age, and so weak a state of health, to such a degree and variety of premature, preposterous, and useless exertions, as must necessarily have exhausted his strength and shortened his life!

He was celebrated all over Europe, under the name of the Learned Child of Lübeck. He died at the age of four years, four months, twenty days, and twenty-one hours; and his death was recorded in a number of periodical papers: but his native place, Lübeck, erected no monument to this prodigy of nature.

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*Von dem Geschlechts-Adel, und der Erneuerung des Adels; or, Of Hereditary Nobility, and its Renewal. 8vo. Berlin. (German.)*

THE anonymous author begins his dissertation with defining the nature and true foundation of nobility; and observes, against M. de Montesquieu, that hereditary nobility is, properly speaking, no essential constituent part of any form of government. It exists, however, not only among polished but also among rude and uncultivated nations. The European, and especially the German nobility, considered as a distinct order, appear to be coeval with their respective nations themselves. The first instances of grants of the inferior ranks of nobility by sovereigns, occur in France, in 1285 and 1290; in England, according to Thomas Rymer, in 1361. And in Germany the creation of gentry, or inferior ranks of nobility, appears to have been introduced by Charles IV. The various degrees of the imperial creation of nobility in Germany, are modern inventions, and not founded in the original constitution of the old German nobility. All the creations are, strictly speaking, valid only in the dominions of the sovereign by whom they are performed; yet from mutual curtesy, acknowledged by other princes also; though, in order to admit such foreign noblemen to the enjoyment of real prerogatives in their dominions, they often require them to be naturalized.

The author then proceeds to the prerogatives, whether common to all noblemen, or exclusively reserved, and peculiar to the ancient



cient nobility; remarks, that nobility, as being a privilege limited to any particular person or family, cannot be transferred, but may be resigned either explicitly, or tacitly, by the choice of some ignoble profession. And finally, by what means it is lost, impaired, or renewed.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Nic. Jos. Jacquin, *Miscellanea Austriaca, ad Botanicam, Chemiam, et Historiam Naturalem spectantia, cum Figuris partim coloratis. Vol. I. 4to. With Plates. (Vienna.)*

**C**ONTAINING chiefly: I. Genitalia Asclepiadearum. II. Compositiones Medicamentorum pharmaceuticæ generales. III. Sempervivum sediforme monstrum Jacquini. IV. Fungi quidam sub Alpini, Jacquini. V. Franc. Xav. Wulfen, Plantæ rariores Carinthiacæ: viz. *Draba Fladnicensis*; *Cordamine bellidifolia*; *Atragalus Uralensis*; *Saxifraga Burseriana*; *Ranunculus Pyrenæus*; *Cineraria Alpina*; *Auricula Urfi* II. VI. *Agaricum Officinale*, Diff. Fre. Rubel; emendata et aucta. VII. *Aqua Aëria Pragensis*; excerpta ex Diff. Jo. Mich. Hornstein.

*Von den Ahndungen und Visionen; Or Forebodings and Visions. 8vo. Leipzig. (German.)*

The judicious author of this treatise has, with great industry and attention, collected and classed a number of instances of Visions, Forebodings, Dreams, Divinations, &c. from ancient and modern books; and, with great caution and modesty, endeavoured to trace and illustrate the natural causes of all these singular effects and phenomena.

*Versuch einer Geschichte des Tempel Herren Ordens; or, an Essay of an History of the Order of Templars 8vo. Leipzig. (German.)*

An impartial, instructive, concise and entertaining history of an order cruelly extirpated by greedy sovereigns, and basely calumniated and condemned by many historians, from tenderness to the memory of its persecutors.

C. Pedonis Albinovani *Elegia in Mortem Drusi Neronis. Varietate Lætionis & Indice Philologico illustravit* Jo. Christoph. Bremer. 8vo. Helmstadtii.

The short critical notes, borrowed from Heinsius's and Burman's editions, are here printed under the text, and sometimes appreciated by the editor. The Philological Index consists chiefly of the remarks of Clericus, Burman, and other critics: And Pet. Burmans and Fr. Aug. Wideburg's Dissertations on this poet, have been prefixed.

*Centum Ænigmata Vetera diu sub Symposii Poetæ Nomine circumlata, deinde a nonnullis tanquam Symposium a Lactantio conscriptum editi. Recensuit, illustravit, atque præfatus est* M. Joan. Frieder. Heynaaz 8vo. Frankfurt on the Oder.

The editor confutes in his preface, Heumannu's opinion, who supposes these Ænigmata to have been composed by Lactantius. He has corrected the text, and subjoined a short and satisfactory solution to each ænigma, and some valuable critical notes.

*Die Unendlichkeit des Welt-Schoepfers; or, the Infinity of the Creator of the Universe.* By Dr. Lewis Crell. 8vo. Helmitzdt. (German.)

A short, profound, yet perspicuous and highly meritorious meditation.

*Kunst-Gewerb-und Handwerks-Geschichte der Reichs-Stadt Augsbürg;* or, *History of Arts, Trade, and mechanical Professions, in the Imperial City of Augsburgh,* By Paul de Stetten, Junior. 8vo. Augsburgh. (German.)

This writer has carefully and minutely traced and related the rise, progress, and state of various arts, at Augsburgh, from authentic records, down to the present times.

*Ueber den Vernunft-schluss; ou Syllogism.* By J. F. Mayer. Vol. I. 8vo, Vienna. (German.)

The author has traced the operations of the human mind in argumentations, with great acuteness and judgment, and found means to unite perspicuity and sprightliness of diction with profundity of thought.

M. Jeremias David Reufs, *Beschreibung einiger Handschriften aus der Universitäts-Bibliothek zu Tübingen nebst Anzeige der Verschiedenen Lesarten;* or, *an Account of some MSS. in the University's Library at Tubingen, with a Notice of their various Readings.* 8vo, Tübingen. (German.)

The MSS. here minutely described, contain some considerable parts of the History of Polybius, collated by Mr. Reufs, with the editions published by Casaubon, Herwagius, and Ernesti; and about ten or twelve verses of the first chapter of the Gospel of St. John.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C A L.

*The Detail and Conduct of the American War, under Generals Gage, Howe, Burgoyne, and Vice Admiral Lord Howe,* &c. 8vo. Richardson and Urquhart.

**T**HIS pamphlet comprises a full collection of the various charges that are said to have given rise to the enquiry into the conduct of the war, with the evidence given at the bar of the house of commons, and such strictures as have been made during the course, and since the close of that enquiry. The whole is intended to exhibit a complete view of the facts and observations relative to the prosecution of the war.

*An Enquiry into and Remarks upon the Conduct of Lieutenant-General Burgoyne.* 8vo. 1s. Mathews.

The author of this Enquiry affirms, that after the campaign of 1776, general Burgoyne presented government with a plan, in detail, for the operation of an army proposed to march from Quebec; at the same time begging the command, and pledging himself for the success of the enterprize. In answer to what general Burgoyne alledges, that an alteration was made in the plan

plan he had drawn up, the author farther affirms, that the general did not object to it at the time, and likewise that he has no reason to complain of it now, as it was no more than adopting the most practicable part of the alternative he had proposed, in exclusion of the more arduous one.

The author afterwards, with great force of argument, invalidates the plea produced by general Burgoyne, respecting the positive nature of the instructions he had received; the former strongly contending that general Burgoyne was necessarily vested with a discretionary power, and therefore became answerable for the fatal consequences of his conduct.

*Renovation without Violence yet possible.* 8vo. 6d. Longman.

This author, taking it for granted that the affairs of Great Britain are at present in a distracted situation, in which they cannot long remain, proposes, as a remedy, that the several distinct parts of the British empire, Ireland, America, and even the East-India settlements, should be firmly united as confederate states with Great Britain; and that each of the remote members should send a certain number of representatives to sit in the British parliament. We meet with some other crude hints respecting the improvement of the constitution, which, we apprehend, cannot be easily reduced to practice.

*A Defence of an Act of Parliament lately passed for the Relief of Roman Catholics.* 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

This is written in answer to a pamphlet, entitled, 'An Appeal from the Protestant Association to the People of Great Britain, &c.' The author makes many just remarks on the arguments contained in the Appeal, and endeavours to evince that the notions entertained by the association respecting the consequence of the act in favour of the Roman Catholics, are entirely void of foundation. His principles are liberal, and he writes with candour and good sense.

*Occasional Letters upon Taxation; &c.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Doddsley.

These Letters were formerly published separately in an Evening paper, and are now reprinted in this collection. The author sets out with observing, that we can no longer extend taxation upon articles of general consumption, for fear of affecting our manufacturers in such a manner, as to make it impossible for them to supply foreign markets upon so low terms as their rivals in trade of other nations; and when a farther extension of taxes upon luxury would induce people of fortune to seek a country where they might enjoy the elegancies of life at an easier rate than at home. To supply the exigences of government, on supporting which the security of the funds depends, he *imagines* that the stockholders, might be induced, conditionally, to remit *one or two* per cent. of their capitals. This, he says, would produce more than two millions and a half, at the present price of stocks, and each individual would only feel a diminution of the

the fiftieth part of his income.—It is not to be presumed, however, that the stockholders would make a voluntary gift of this nature, without they were under much greater apprehensions for the safety of the nation than the present circumstances will justify.

Besides what is above suggested, the author throws out some hints on the expediency and practicability of raising the supplies within the year.

*A Letter to the Whigs.* 8vo. 1s. Almon.

The writer of this Letter begins with giving an account of his creed, in which he tells us that he is a whig, and a friend to liberty; that he is a disciple of Mr. Locke; and that he abhors and reprobates the ideas of passive obedience and non-resistance. He might have added, that he is an enemy to septennial parliaments, and the qualification-act. But whatever may be his principles, his object in the present Letter, is evidently to excite an association for procuring a redress of various grievances which he supposes to exist. The pamphlet seems intended as an incentive to the county meetings.

*Substance of political Debates on his Majesty's Speech on the Address, and Amendment,* Nov. 25, 1779. *With Remarks on the State of the Irish Claim to a free Trade.* 8vo. 1s. Faulder.

This pamphlet appears to be written by an enemy to opposition, the motives of which he represents in no favourable light. A few remarks are added on the state of the Irish claim to a free trade; but these may now be considered as a subject of little importance,

*An Address to the Representatives in Parliament upon the State of the Nation.* 8vo. 1s. Almon.

The author of this Address endeavours to dissuade the members of parliament from granting supplies for the continuance of the war, which he represents in the hackneyed character of being unnatural and ruinous to the nation.

*An Address to the Freeholders of Middlesex, assembled at the Free Mason's Tavern, in Great Queen-street, upon Monday, Dec. 20, 1779.* 8vo. 6d. Cadell.

This Address relates to the meeting in Great Queen-street, and contains an exhortation to the freeholders for supporting the freedom of election.

## M E D I C A L.

*An Answer to the Letter addressed by Francis Riollay, Physician of Newbury, to James Hardy, Physician of Barnstable.* 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

In this letter Dr. Hardy examines the objections made by Dr. Riollay respecting the opinion he had intimated, in his treatise on the Devonshire colic, that the gout originates from the action of mineral substances. The remarks and arguments which

Dr.

Dr. Hardy produces, are strongly enforced; and if they do not fully establish his opinion, they at least invalidate the objections suggested by Dr. Riollay. The author also, in the course of his observations, presents us with additional proof in support of what he had asserted to be the cause of the Devonshire colic.

## P O E T R Y.

*The Vision: a Poem, on the Death of Lord Lyttelton.* 4to. 1s. Millidge.

It is a pity that such *Visions* as these should ever appear, as they can answer no good end or purpose. The author, however, has (in his preface) let us into a secret, which we suppose he had from the ghost, that is rather extraordinary, viz. that the late lord Lyttelton, of pious memory, was undoubtedly made away with by the present administration, that he might not tell tales of them; but, as he charitably observes,

—The annals of every age furnish us with many instances wherein the apprehensions of the guilty have precipitated them into the commission of the foulest crimes, in order to remove those who might be the means of bringing them to condign and public punishment.

At a moment when ministry has every thing to dread from an insulted people, no honest man is safe from their machination; for a set of men who can uniformly persevere in the destruction of their sovereign, and the rights and privileges of their countrymen, will not hesitate to perpetrate secret crimes. The day which lord Lyttelton had appointed for a discovery of those diabolical proceedings, which he could no longer behold without horror, (and which intention he had announced in the most solemn manner to his confidential friends,) was too big with the fate of ministers and England to be suffered to dawn upon his virtuous purpose.

The poem then opens and informs us, that at a certain hour of night

‘When darkness reign’d with universal sway.’

‘When N--th lay trembling at approaching light.’

‘When F--x lay bleeding in his country’s cause.’

After these, and about a hundred and fifty more *rubrics*, full of compliments to the patriots and abuse of every body else, comes the vision, stands by my lord’s bed-side, and cries,

‘Assert thyself, restore thy drooping fame,

And to eternal bliss put in thy claim.’

The author of this piece may, for aught we know, put in his claim to the character of a poet; but if he can produce no better verses than are to be found in the *Vision*, he will never acquire it.

*The Sea-Fight; an Elegiac Poem, from Henry to Laura.* By Charles Shillito. 4to. 1s. 6d. Dodsley.

Most title-pages, like quack advertisements, promise more than they perform. We assure the public, that Mr. Shillito is, in this respect, no quack; for here, ladies and gentlemen, you have much more than you expected from the title. Here is ‘breathed a’ whole ‘history of woe,’ the loves of Henry and Laura.

Laura.—Here you are told *as how* Henry was a lord's son, and Laura a farmer's daughter; and that they were *desperately* in love with each other.—*As how* L. was very fond of kissing; so that she not only amused herself that way in her waking hours, but be-kissed poor H. in her dreams. She kisses him when alive, and he tells us will do the same when he is dead; and, not yet contented, like an impudent gipsy, vows they '*will* kiss in heaven.' We are informed, that H.'s father got him pressed, and carried aboard a tender; though he talked to the press-gang '*in no vulgar strain*,' and '*swore* the peasant's garb conceal'd a *lord*.' He was put aboard a man of war, where he is seized with a sudden, and most violent fit of valour, and '*swears*' a vile Pagan oath '*by all the powers in yon Cærulean sky*,' that he '*will die for Albion*:' and then, this insipid, *long* story is concluded with a very *short* sea-fight indeed! In a stanza or two he blows up one '*mighty vessel*,' and sinks another '*gallant ship*' by a single broadside. Believing that this melancholy story had thrown Laura into hysterics, he '*breaks the thread of his unhappy tale*:', promising to '*resume it in some future hour*,' when '*sweetly seated in some green alcove*.' By way of consolation, he assures her that '*each sudden pause shall speak excessive love, and frequent kisses interrupt the tale*.'

This, ladies and gentlemen, is a sketch of your entertainment: but the detail, the finishing of the piece, is still more wonderful. Here '*the calm sea*' is desired to '*swell fair as her (Laura's) form*—read *large*, nostro periculo. There a '*lovely cheek betrays*,'—you would imagine some passion or desire of the soul—no, no such common occurrence—it *betrays* '*a crimson veil*!' There a *billet-doux* '*pours dear stanzas*!' and a '*wounded lover*' is metamorphosed into a hen! and *lays* on the '*green turf*!'

'On that green turf where last we careless play'd—

—Ev'n there, sweet maid! thy wounded lover laid.'

There you find, on board a tender, a good orthodox Christian, who prays he may be one of the *elect*; and a reprobate Papist, that curses the whole catalogue of saints; who both join in a concert of '*oaths*' and '*prayers*,' and keep excellent time.

'Another sued for heav'n's *peculiar* care,

A third would deal a *curse* to ev'ry saint;

'Till ev'ry oath kept time with ev'ry pray'r.'

And there Henry '*swears* an '*inexorable oath*' (by the bye, he is too much given to *swearing*, which smells strong of the fore-castle) that he '*will die for Albion*,' when we see, through the whole of the poem, he wishes, and even *expects* to *live* for Laura.

#### D R A M A T I C.

*The Shepherdess of the Alps: a Comic Opera, in Three Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in Covent-Garden. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Kearsly.*

The Italian opera has been long favoured by an indulgent public with the exclusive privilege of setting nonsense to music, with

with impunity: Signior Dibdissi, as an enemy to monopolies, has, in the piece before us, thought proper to extend it to the tasteful regions of a British theatre, where the adoption of this mode has not, we find, met with that degree of applause which the author had probably expected. The piece has, it seems, notwithstanding all its musical merit, been nipped in the bud, and is already totally lost and extinguished.—We are not, to say the truth, in the least surprised at the sudden death of the poor *Shops herders of the Alps*, as it is undoubtedly one of the poorest and most contemptible pieces, considered as a publication, that ever disgraced an English stage, the whole consisting of a bald, literal, vulgar translation of Marmontel, joined to an awkward affectation of wit and humour, in the characters of Guillot and Triste. Our readers need not be told, as it has been repeated in almost every news-paper, that this opera is founded on Marmontel's elegant tale, which is so admirably constructed, that a very little art and management might have moulded it into a pleasing comic, or rather pastoral opera: but this is a task which Mr. D. or whoever fabricated this performance for him, was very unequal to. We advise him, therefore, as he is undoubtedly a very ingenious composer, to stick entirely to his music, and leave the business of writing to abler hands.

*The Mirror; or, Harlequin Every-where: a Pantomimical Burletta, in Three Parts. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in Covent-Garden. 8vo. 1s. Kearsly.*

This Mirror, though it does not *reflect* any great honour on the maker, may serve *well enough* to decorate a pantomime, where the sing-song does not require much wit or humour to adorn it. The pantomimical burletta has no object in view but to make us laugh; and whether it be by sense or nonsense, if the end is answered, the work is complete: as such we recommend the Mirror to our readers, by way of pocket-glass, to be carried with them whenever this diverting pantomime is performed.

## N O V E L S.

*The Generous Sister. In a Series of Letters. By Mrs. Cartwright. 2 vols. 5s. sewed. Bew.*

The generosity of this lady consists in marrying, in order to please her father, and to bless her sister, a rich old lord, who makes a very good husband.—There seems nothing very wonderful in this: there are many ladies, we presume, in this great metropolis, capable of equal condescension.—The artifices and horrors of the Stanhopean system are emphatically described in the story of miss Donaldson, miss Warburton, and sir William Dunbar.

*The Relapse. 2 vol. 5s. sewed. Lowndes.*

A lively description of the wanderings of an inconstant heart, with the miseries that flow from conjugal infidelity and the grati-

gratification of criminal desires.—Among the numerous pictures, exhibited to the world by novelists, of amiable and accomplished women, few, in our opinion, excel that of Louisa Sedley.

*The Indiscreet Marriage.* By Miss Nugent and Miss Taylor, of Twickenham. 3 vols. 7s. 6d. sewed. Doddsley.

Surprisingly well! for two ladies, 'whose ages together do not exceed thirty years.' To masters and misses about their own age, the work will probably appear not a little entertaining.—There is a very singular character in this juvenile performance, that of Mrs. Plomer, who discloses the most secret sentiments and emotions of a very bad heart with the freedom of a Cardan. With all the disposition to be gentle to young female authors, we cannot but censure such grammatical inaccuracies as these: 'subjecting Alicia and I [me]—*who* [whom] we soon cleared—every body will be going to town, and *them* [they] no doubt among the rest—Henry and *her* [she] will write a few days hence—both *him* [he] and my aunt seem excessively charmed with lord Selwyn.'—

### M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

*A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Rochester in the Year 1779.* By John Law, D. D. 4to. 1s. Payne.

The venerable bench of bishops having, by their silence, given consent to an act passed last year in favour of the Roman Catholics, Mr. Archdeacon Law (a gentleman whom we never heard of before as figuring in the republic of letters) being probably of opinion, that in ecclesiastical as well as political matters, the safest way is always to swim with the tide, endeavours in this Charge to recommend himself to his superiors, by strenuously defending the act above-mentioned, and exhorting the clergy of the diocese which he presides over, to an implicit submission to, and a hearty approbation of it.—Whether this act of parliament may, or may not, be attended with any ill consequences to the protestant religion, we cannot pretend to determine, as much may undoubtedly be said on both sides. Most certain, however, it is, that better arguments might be advanced in its favour, than any which the archdeacon has here produced, his Charge being a very barren and shallow performance.

*The Kentish Curate's Letter to the Rev. Mr. Archdeacon Law, on his Defence of Popery.* As delivered in his Charge to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Rochester. 4to. 1s. T. Davies.

*Corruptio minis*, say the philosophers, *est generatio alterius*: the dulness of the preceding article has produced the wit and humour of this, in which the ingenious author has most severely lashed his antagonist. Irony is a sharp and dangerous weapon, which very few moderns, since the days of Swift and Arbuthnot, have known how to make a proper use of: the writer of this Letter seems, however, to handle it in a most scientific manner,

or



or rather, indeed, to be a perfect master of it. Religious controversies are generally carried on with a degree of unbecoming warmth, and acrimonious zeal, that is extremely disgusting; we are therefore much obliged to an author who will treat a subject of this nature with pleasantry and good humour, which is much more likely to reconcile the different opinions concerning it than declamation and invectives.

The Kentish Curate sets out with an excellent story, and ends with one which is still better. We shall give our readers the head and the foot, from which they may in some measure judge of, and we doubt not will be glad to look at, the whole figure:

The letter begins thus:

'The heart lying on the right side, says the physician in Moliere—On the *right* side? replies the patient; I always thought it was on the *left*. No, rejoins the doctor; formerly, I grant, it was so; but at present we go upon another system; *the College have altered it*. With this excellent reason, the patient, as in duty bound, remained perfectly satisfied, and in cases of the like nature every man *should* be so. There was a time, Mr. Archdeacon, though I believe not within your memory, when the reformed religion of this country and the Protestant establishment were deemed matters of the utmost concern and importance; when it would have been thought very extraordinary for any clergyman, and more especially a dignitary in the church of England, to have stood forth as a champion for Popery, but

*Tempora mutantur, nos et mutamur in illis.*

Things indeed are mightily changed of late; a new system prevails; as Moliere says, *the College have altered it*, and we must rest contented."

The Kentish Curate proceeds in a vein of irony, makes some excellent applications and remarks, tells two or three arch stories, and concludes thus:

'A famous keeper of wild beasts took it into his head that he could easily subdue the ferocity of a lion, provided that he began time enough. He accordingly brought up a whelp of that species with the greatest care; and at length made him so tame and familiar, that at the age of maturity he could play any tricks with him, pat him on the back, provoke, and even put his head into his mouth with impunity. Trying, however, one day the latter experiment before some friends who stood at a distance, one of them observed that the beast looked extremely fierce. No matter, cried the keeper from within the lion's mouth.—He extends his claws.—No matter.—Does he wag his tail?—He does.—Then Lord have mercy upon me—and immediately the lion bit his head off.

'And now, Mr. Archdeacon, to apply, as we say in our sermons, and conclude:

'The Roman Catholic lion is a dangerous kind of beast, or at least used to be reckoned so; we pared his claws indeed, and filed his teeth; but in time they are apt to grow again. If he looks fierce, no matter; if he extends his claws, no matter; but if he *should* *ossequer* (which God forbid!) to wag his tail—why then, as the keeper said—Lord have mercy upon us!

A. J.

We

We shall make no more quotations from this letter, as we would not wish to anticipate our reader's pleasure in the perusal of it; only observing, that, after what we have said, those who do not purchase a look over this little

*Tota merum sal,*

either have no risible muscles, or do not chuse to make use of them.

*A Letter to the right worshipful William Wynne, LL. D. Chancellor of the Diocese of London. Containing, Observations on the Facts alleged, the Evidence produced, and the Sentence pronounced by him, in the Consistorial Court of London, on the 6th of December, 1779; in a Cause in which Dr. Hind, the late Rector of St. Ann, Westminster, was the Promoter, and his Curate the Respondent. By the rev. Thomas Martyn.*

So can I give no Reason, nor I will not,  
More than a lodged hate, and a certain loathing  
I bear ANTHONIO, that I follow thus  
A losing Suit against him. SHYLOCK.

8vo. 1s. Almon.

This is a kind of *provoco ad populum*, or appeal to the people, from the judgement of Dr. Wynne, pronounced by him in the cause so long litigated between Dr. Hind and his curate, which if our readers are not already acquainted with, it is not at present worth our while to enter into a detail of.

*longa est injuria, longa*

*Ambages*—

Suffice it, therefore, to let them know, that Mr. Martyn, in the pamphlet before us, seems to think himself much aggrieved by the sentence passed upon him, and complains that, 'as the race is not always to the swift, nor the battle to the strong,—so, judicial determinations are not always on the side of right.' He was acquitted, it seems, in the ecclesiastical court, of the crimes of drunkenness, adultery, neglects, and indecencies, which the rector had laid to his charge; but brought in guilty of acting in defiance of Dr. Hind, opposing him in the execution of his office, and preventing him from preaching, praying, &c. The latter offence, had the congregation been the judges, instead of Dr. Wynne, would, probably, have been considered as venial: that, however, not being the case, Mr. Martin was condemned to pay the costs of suit, and to be deemed a culprit, who, as the sentence ran, 'ought to be removed from the curacy,' which we hear he has accordingly resigned. The case of Mr. Martyn, by what we can learn, from this and some other publications, appears to be rather hard, and the prosecution against him to border a little on malice and oppression.

The Letter, though apparently dictated by no small degree of acrimony, is spirited and well-written.

*Caf*

*Cash Tables at Five Pounds and Fifteen Pounds per Cent. on the Duties of Excise and Malts.* By John Crooke. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

Seemingly accurate and useful.

*An Answer to the Criticism in the Monthly Review for October 1779, on a Pamphlet lately published, called Seventy-four Cases.* By W. Rowley, M. D. 8vo. No Publisher's Name or Price.

Dr. Rowley thinking himself injuriously treated by some insinuations contained in the above mentioned criticism, against the authenticity of the facts which he had related, appeals to the public in this answer; producing the names and places of abode of those whom he had cured, and also specifying many respectable personages, by whom the patients had been recommended.

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Catalogue

of  
Mr. Capell's Shakesperiana;

Presented by him to

Trinity College

Cambridge,

and printed from an exact copy of his own

MS.

1779. [No Publisher, or Price.]

This general title is back'd by the following edit and enumeration of manuscripts.

June 26, 1779.

Ordered by the master and seniors, agreeably to the express desire of Mr. Capel, that the whole collection given by him be kept together in the same class; and that no manuscript or book belonging to it be taken out of the library on any pretence whatever.

J. Peterborough, M. C.

MSS.

1. "Shakespeare," by E. C. 6 vols. 4°.

2. "N. & V R." belonging to it, and the } 3 vols. 4°.  
"School of Shakespeare," by d°

[containing in them besides,—a "General Glossary" to his plays, of the order and time of writing them, a treatise; a "Brief Essay on Verse," as of his modelling; the "Notitia Dramatica;" and "Anecdotes of Sir John Fastolf of Caestre in Norfolk," by Lord Dacre.

3. Milton's "Paradise lost," by E. C. 4°.

(at the end of it,—a Treatise on Letters, intitl'd "Hermes," &c. and a "Vocabulary of the Poem mark'd.

4. Prolusions, or Select Pieces of ancient Poetry," by E. C. 2 vols. 4°. small.

5. "Shakespeare's Poems," by E. C. 8°.

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\* The 4 remaining articles are not yet deposited in the Library."

Here

Here succeeds a second title, viz.

"Catalogue  
of a Collection intitl'd *Shakesperiana*;  
comprehending

All the several Editions of the works of Shakespeare,  
old and new, divers rare old Editions of writers profes-  
men and verse-men; with a variety of other Articles,  
chiefly such as tend to illustrate him;—

made by his last editor, E. C.

and by him deposited in the library of Trinity College  
in Cambridge, this eleventh day of June in the year  
1779."

This pamphlet, consisting of a sheet and a half, we received by the Penny-Post, unaccompanied with either card or letter. If it be a performance designed hereafter for general inspection, we are obliged by so early a sight of it. But if a few copies of it only are printed off, for the use or entertainment of particular readers, (which we suspect to be the case) we know not why the editor, or any of his friends, should wish to have a work characterised to the publick, in which the publick will have so little interest. We shall therefore content ourselves with observing, that the *Catalogue* before us contains 363 articles, comprized in 245 volumes, together with a list of *Desiderata*, and the three subsequent pieces of information, the value of which we submit to the judgment of our readers.

\* MS. Note in Mr. Capell's Copy of Hanmer's Shakespeare. 4°.

"These books were a present to the rev<sup>d</sup>. Arthur Kynnesman (head master of a school which he rais'd to the greatest splendor, and maintain'd in that splendor for half a century,—the school of St. Edmond's Bury) from his friend and patron, their editor: and came to their now possessor E. C. by bequest of that gentleman, in a will, which honours his grateful scholar with title of—The true restorer of Shakespeare."

Mar. 26, 1774.

\* MS. Note in Capell's Shakespeare, Vol. 1.

"N. B. In marking the poet's numbers, as is done in this copy, it was not perceiv'd 'till too late—that *breves* were not necessary, and the copy is something blemish'd by effacing those *breves*: nor is the marking so otherwise perfect as could be wish'd in all places, being a first essay, and there may be mistakes in it. 'Tis of the year 69. E. C."

\* MS. note on the title-page of the Letter to George Hardinge Esq<sup>r</sup> 1777.

"Seen through the press by M<sup>r</sup> H—ge: Note in p. 18, added and the Postscript new moulded by him. E. C."

From the last memorandum, it should seem that part of this Letter was written by the gentleman to whom it is addressed.



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T H E

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of February, 1780.

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*Experiments and Observations made with the View of improving the Art of composing and applying Calcareous Cements and of preparing Quicklime: Theory of these Arts; and Specification of the Author's cheap and durable Cement, for Building, Incrustation or Stuccoing, and artificial Stones. By Bry. Higgins, M. D. 8vo. 5s. unbound. Cadell.*

**E**Xperiments and observations that conduce in any degree to the improvement of natural knowledge are worthy the attention of philosophy; but our esteem is doubly attracted by those, which at the same time that they enlarge the bounds of science, contribute both to the conveniencies and elegancies of life. Of the latter kind are the Experiments and Observations now before us, which have been made with a particular view to ascertain the precise method of rendering calcareous cements most durable for the purposes of building. That this art was carried to great perfection among the Romans, evidently appears from a number of antiquities yet remaining. The revival of it has lately been attempted by some ingenious architects in this country; and so far as the experience of a few years can determine, the trial has been made with success. To arrive at a greater degree of certainty in this point, however, has been the object of Dr. Higgins in the present work. He has endeavoured by various experiments to ascertain the composition of the most durable cement, and to anticipate, by the aid of scientific process, an experience which could otherwise be learned only by posterity after a lapse of many ages.

The author begins with the observation of Dr. Black, that calcareous stones which burn to lime, contain a considerable  
 Vol. XLIX. Feb. 1780. G quan-

quantity of the elastic fluid called fixable air or acidulous gas which in combination with the earthy matter forms a great part of the mass and weight of those stones; and that the difference between lime-stone or chalk and lime, consists chiefly in the retention or expulsion of this matter. Setting out with the knowledge of those principles, Dr. Higgins was anxious to make farther discoveries relative to lime, and particularly to investigate the cause of the differences which appear in cements made with different kinds of lime. He therefore entered upon a course of experiments, and deduces from them the following observations; which not being capable of abridgement, we must lay before our readers at full length.

‘Observation 1. Lime stone or chalk heated only to redness, in a covered crucible, or in a perforated crucible through which the air circulates freely, loses only about one-fourth of its weight, however long this heat be continued. The sort of lime so formed effervesces considerably in acids, flakes slowly and partially to a powder which is not white, but is grey or brown, and heats but little in slaking.

‘In describing heats I do not regard the heat in particular parts of the fuel, but only that which the bodies themselves are made to conceive equally through their whole mass, whether they be in vessels which defend them considerably from the action of the fire, or fully exposed to it by their immediate contact with the fuel.

‘Obs. 2. Lime-stone or chalk exposed to a heat barely sufficient to melt copper, whether in a perforated crucible or otherwise, loses about one third of its weight in twelve hours, and very little more in any longer time. This lime effervesces but slightly in acids; it heats much sooner and more strongly than the foregoing, when water is sprinkled on it, and it flakes more equably and to a whiter powder. In a variety of trials, this lime appeared to be in the same state with the best pieces of lime, prepared in the common lime-kilns. For the quantities of acidulous gas obtainable from both by a stronger heat, or in solution, were nearly equal; they flaked in equal times, with the same phenomena, and to the same colour and condition of the powder.

‘Obs. 3. The lime, as used in perforated crucibles, or in the naked fire, is whiter than that burned in common crucibles covered, in which case the air has not so free access to it; although the loss of weight be the same in both; but this latter kind of lime, in slaking, affords as white a powder as any other which has lost equally of its weight. Whatever portion of phlogiston it retains to produce this dusky colour, is either detached in the slaking, or does not sensibly effect the lime in any use, to which I applied it.

‘Obs. 4. When dry chalk or lime-stone is used, in the process above described for making lime in close vessels, and for examining

ing the matter which is expelled by fire, the quantity of water obtainable from it by any heat, is so inconsiderable as to deserve no notice in our mensuration of that matter.

Obs. 5. Chalk or lime-stone heated gradually in these close vessels, loses very little acidulous gas until it begins to redden; after this the elastic fluid issues from it the quicker as the heat is made greater, and continues to issue until the retort glows with a vivid white heat sufficient to melt steel.

Obs. 6. Forty-eight ounces of chalk yield twenty-one ounces of elastic fluid; the first proportions of which are turbid as they issue, but soon become clear without loss of bulk, by the condensation of the watery vapour: the remaining portions issue transparent and invisible. One thirty-sixth of this elastic fluid, and sometimes much more of it, is phlogistic air, the remainder is pure acidulous gas.

Obs. 7. The residuary lime of forty-eight ounces of chalk, urged with such heat to the total expulsion of the elastic fluids, weighs only twenty-seven ounces, whilst it is red-hot. When it cools it weighs more by reason of the air which it imbibes as the fire escapes from it.

Obs. 8. When no more heat is employed than is necessary for the expulsion of these elastic fluids, the residuary matter is found contracted sensibly in volume, and is good lime, though not so white as lime prepared in the usual way. With water it flakes instantly, grows hissing hot and perfectly white. The flaked powder is exceedingly fine, except in those parts of the lime which lay in contact with the retort, which are always superficially vitrified, because clay and lime promote the vitrification of each other.

Obs. 9. The lumps of this lime, immersed in lime-water, or boiling water, to expel the air which such spongy bodies imbibe in cooling, dissolve in marine acid without shewing any sign of effervescence.

Obs. 10. Lime-stone or chalk gradually heated in a crucible, or on the bed of a reverberatory furnace, or in contact with the fuel in a wind furnace, does not become perfectly noneffervescent and similar to the lime last described, in flaking instantly, and growing hissing hot when water is sprinkled on it, until it has, after a strong red heat of six or eight hours, sustained a white heat for an hour or more. I was misled by a white heat, that which is sufficient to melt cast iron completely.

Obs. 11. Lime-stones heated sufficiently to reduce them to lime which flakes instantly with the signs above described, and which is perfectly noneffervescent, do not in general lose so much of their weight as chalk-stone does, under the like treatment. Some lime-stones lose little more than a third of their weight. Those which lose the most, flake the quickest and to the finest powder; and those which lose the least, flake the slowest and to a gritty powder composed of true lime and particles chiefly gypsous.

‘Obs. 12. The quantity of gypsum, or of other earthy matter in well burned lime, is discoverable by weak marine acid; for this dissolves and washes away the lime, leaving the gypsum to be measured when dry, the part of the gypsum which dissolves being too small to deserve any attention; and if any other earthy matter or any saline matter existed in the lime-stone, it vitrifies with part of the calcareous matter in the heat necessary for making noneffervescent lime, and is separable by the means last mentioned, and even by a fine sieve in most instances.

‘Obs. 13. When lime-stone or chalk is suddenly heated to the highest degree above described, or a little more, it vitrifies in the parts which touch the fire vessels, or furnace, or fuel, and the whole of it becomes incapable of flaking freely or acting like lime. Lime-stone is the more apt to vitrify in such circumstances, as it contains more gypseous or argillaceous particles; and oyster-shells or cockle shells vitrify more easily than lime-stone or chalk, when they are suddenly heated; which I impute to their saline matter; for when they are long weathered, they do not vitrify so easily.

‘Obs. 14. The agency of air is no further necessary in the preparation of lime, than as it operates in the combustion of the fuel.

‘Obs. 15. Calcareous stones acquire the properties of lime in the most eminent degree, when they are slowly heated in small fragments until they appear to glow with a white heat, when this is continued until they become noneffervescent, but is not augmented. The art of preparing good lime consists chiefly in these particulars.

‘Obs. 16. That lime is to be accounted the purest and fittest for experiment, whether it be the best for mortar or not, which flakes the quickest and heats the most in flaking, which is whitest and finest when flaked, which when wetted with lime-water dissolves in marine acid or distilled vinegar without effervescence, and leaves the smallest quantity of residuary undissolved matter.

Obs. 17. The quick flaking, the colour of the flaked powder and the former acid, are the most convenient, and perhaps the best tests of the purity of lime. The whiteness denotes the lime to be free from metallic impregnation; the others shew any imperfections in the process of burning, and the heterogeneous matter inseparable from the calcareous earth by burning.’

In the third section the author presents us with remarks on the phlogificated air which appeared in some of the experiments he had made.—The fourth section contains experiments shewing that lime is better for mortar, as it contains less acidulous gas, and also elucidating some of the causes of the imperfection of common mortar. One of those which appear to be of the greatest consequence in practice is, that the workmen usually flake the lime mixed with the sand or gravel in great heaps, and do not skreen it till the most useful part is debased by that which  
flakes



flakes after five or six hours more, and which is little better than so much powder of chalk. But, continues Dr. Higgins, if they would screen the lime in about half an hour after the water is thrown on it, the mortar would be much better, although the quantity of lime in it should be much less; for he observed that those specimens which contained the smallest quantity of lime were the best; and this quantity is much smaller than is usually employed in making mortar.

Section V. recites experiments shewing how quickly lime imbibes acidulous gas, and is injured by exposure to air. These are followed by practical remarks, which merit greatly the attention of builders.

After this (says Dr. Higgins) there remained no doubt that lime grows worse for mortar every day that it is kept in the usual manner in heaps or in crazy casks; that the workmen are mistaken in thinking that it is sufficient to keep it dry; that lime may be greatly debased without flaking sensibly; and that the superficial parts, of any parcel of lime, which falls into small fragments or powder without being wetted, and merely by exposure to air, are quite unfit for mortar; since this does not happen until they have imbibed a great deal of acidulous gas.

I now saw more clearly another cause of the imperfection of our common cements. The lime being exposed a considerable time before it is made into mortar, and drinking in acidulous gas all the while, the quicker as it is the better burned, is incapable of acting like good lime when it is made into mortar; and often approaches to the condition of whiting, which with sand and water makes a friable perishable mass, however carefully it be dried. In London particularly they use lime which is burned, at the distance of ten or twenty miles or more, in Kent and elsewhere, with an insufficient quantity of fuel. This lime remains in the kiln, to which the air has access, for many hours after it is burned. It is exposed for some days in the transportation, and on the lime-wharfs; and it undergoes further exposure and carriage before the artist flakes it for mortar. It is no wonder that the London mortar is bad, if the imperfection of it depended solely on the badness of the lime; since the lime employed in it, is not only bad when it comes fresh from the kiln, but becomes worse before it is used, and when flaked is as widely different from good lime, as it is from powdered chalk.

Section VI. contains experiments and observations made to determine whether mortar be the better for being long kept before it is used. Dr. Higgins condemns the practice of flaking a great deal of lime at once, and of keeping the mortar made some time; as he found that such practice prevents the mortar from ever acquiring that degree of hardness in which its perfection consists.

Section VII. treats of the depravation of mortar by the common method of using the water; and of the use of lime-water. Our author is convinced that it would be a considerable improvement in making mortar, to use no water but such as has been previously freed from acidulous gas.

Section VIII. contains experiments made with a view to approximate the best proportions of lime, sand, and water, for mortar. This subject appears to be of so much importance in the art of building, that we shall lay before our readers the experiments and observations concerning it.

\* I made five parcels of mortar with my best stone lime recently slaked with lime-water, and with the coarse Thames sand, in the following proportions by weight.

1. Slaked lime, 1.—Sand, 4.—Lime water, q. s.
2. Slaked lime, 1.—Sand, 5.—Lime water, q. s.
3. Slaked lime, 1.—Sand, 6.—Lime water, q. s.
4. Slaked lime, 1.—Sand, 7.—Lime water, q. s.
5. Slaked lime, 1.—Sand, 8.—Lime water, q. s.

\* This latter specimen was not sufficiently plastic for common use; or as the workmen express themselves, it was too short. I further observed that the quantity of water required to make mortar to the proper temper, is greater as the quantity of lime is greater relatively to the quantity of sand.

\* I spread these on tiles in the month of June, and exposed them to the air and the sun, which then was very hot.

\* As my former experience taught me to expect that some of these, in hasty drying, would crack considerably; and as mortar, in building, is not liable to dry so quickly as these specimens; in order to render the inferences from these experiments the more general, I made five other parcels of mortar in the same manner and exposed them in the same way, in every respect, except that the direct rays of the sun could not fall on them or heat the pavement on which they stood. In three days I found this necessary, for the first of those which stood exposed to the sun cracked considerably, the second cracked less, the third shewed three or four very slender fissures visible only on a very close inspection, the fourth and fifth shewed no cracks at this time, nor in a month afterwards, when the fissures of the others were considerably enlarged.

\* Of the specimens kept in the shade and examined on the third day like the former, the first was cracked in divers parts, the second shewed two or three very slender cracks, the rest were not cracked in the least, and never cracked afterwards, although I was forced to remove them to the place where the others stood.

\* Thus it appeared in a very short time that an excess of lime disposes mortar to crack, and consequently injures it; that the highest proportion of lime to such sand, which may be used without incurring this inconvenience, depends on the circumstances.

stances in which the mortar is to be exposed; that no more than one part of lime to seven of coarse sand ought to be used in mortar which is to dry quickly; and less lime may not be used, because it does not render the mass sufficiently plastic for building or incrustation; and that if a greater proportion of lime to such sand improves the mortar in any respect, it is to be used only where the mortar cannot dry so quickly as it did in the specimens exposed to the sun.

In the course of nine months I clearly perceived that those specimens which stood in the shade for the first three days, were harder, and better in other respects, than those which were suddenly exposed to the sun, the comparison being made between the specimens which contained the same proportions of lime, and which cracked the least, or not at all; and of all the specimens, those were the best which contained one part of lime in seven of the sand: for those which contained less lime, and were too short whilst fresh, were more easily cut and broke, and were pervious to water; and these which contained more lime, although they were closer in the grain, did not harden so soon or to so great a degree, even when they escaped cracking by lying in the shade to dry slowly.

I therefore concluded that hasty drying injures mortar made in any proportions of such sand and the best lime; and that the best proportion is one of lime in seven of sand, whether the mortar is to be quickly dried or not.

I must observe, however, that these conclusions were made rather with a view to my future experiments, in which an approximation to the best proportions of lime and sand and the best treatment of the mortar would save a great deal of trouble, than to any general and invariable rule for making mortar.

I reserved it to be mentioned in this place, that I set apart four ounces of each of the foregoing specimens of mortar, and spread these portions severally on plates of thin window glass, to the thickness of a quarter of an inch or thereabouts; and I noted the weight of each plate with its specimen of mortar recently made.

These being equally exposed to the sun and weighed at different periods were found to lose weight in equal times nearly in the proportion of the quantity of lime or of water used in making them; and the smallest loss of weight when the specimens were perfectly dry and considerably harden, was one-tenth of the weight of the same specimens recently made.

In many former experiments I had observed, but reserved it to be mentioned in this place, that mortar which sets without cracking, whether this be owing to the due proportion of sand, or to the slow exhalation of the water from mortar containing less sand; never cracks afterwards, whatever other faults it may have: the specimens mentioned in this section, after a trial of eighteen months afforded the same observation.

By the setting of mortar, I understand that solidity which it acquires by mere drying, and which differs widely from the indu-

ation

ration that takes place in time by other means which we shall presently consider.

'Seeing then that the quantity of water in mortar is as the quantity of lime, that the fissures happen only in the drying or setting, that the danger of cracking is greater, not merely as the quantity of water is greater relatively to the sand, nor merely as the water is more expeditiously exhaled, but in a rate compounded of these; I inferred that mortar which is to be used where it must dry quickly, ought to be made as stiff as the purpose will admit, that is, with the smallest practicable quantity of water; and that mortar will not crack, although the lime be used in excessive quantity, provided it be made stiffer or to a thicker consistence than mortar usually is.

'This inference was afterwards found to be true: for specimens made thus with one part of lime and only six of sand, and others made with greater proportions of lime, but as stiff as they could be used, did not crack, in any exposure: but they had faults which will be hereafter noticed.'

Section IX. treats of the theory of induration as dependent on the proportions of lime and sand in mortar, with observations on the bad effects of the vulgar proportions of these.

Our author observes, 'that the strength and duration of the calcareous incrustations composed of lime and sand, will be greater, as we depart further from the proportions of lime and sand commonly used, approaching to that of one part of lime to seven of sand; because the stucco which hardens the soonest must be the least injured, whilst it is new, by the beating rains, and various accidental impressions; because that which adheres most firmly to the other materials of buildings, and which acquires the greatest degree of induration, must contribute most to the strength of the walls, and best withstand the shocks, attrition, and other trials to which the stucco is exposed; because that which contains the greatest proportion of sand, is less liable to be injured by any saline matter with which the air sometimes is impregnated, as its calcareous matter is the better defended by the sand: but above all, because the stucco made with one part of lime, and above seven of sand, is not disposed to crack: for incrustations in this climate perishes sooner by reason of the fissures than of any other defect; because the water imbibed into the slenderest of them, as well as into those which appear on a cursory view, swells in the congelation, and dilates them; and frequent alternations of wetting and freezing, gradually widen them, until the stucco is bulged and torn from the walls.'

Section X. recites experiments on old cements, authorising the proportion recommended of lime and sand.—Sect. XI. contains experiments and observations shewing the agency of acidulous gas in the induration of mortar, and circumstances which impede or promote it.—This section also concludes with practical inferences, for which we refer to the work.—Sect. XII.

Experi-

Experiments shewing the best kinds and mixtures of sand, and the best method of using the lime-water, in making mortar.—Sect. XIII. Experiments shewing the effects of the finest sand and quartose powder, in mortar; with observations on the finest calcareous cements, and practical precepts.—Sect. XIV. Experiments made on a larger scale with our best mixture of sands, lime-water, and lime.—Sect. XV. Experiments shewing the integrant parts of gravel, the choice and preparation of it; and the effects of clay, fullers' earth, and terras, in mortar.—Sect. XVI. Experiments shewing the effects of plaster powder, alum, vitriolic acid, and of some metallic and earthy salts, and of alcalies, in mortar; with practical inferences. Dr. Higgins observes, that in making mortar, rain water is preferable; river water holds the next place, land water the next, and spring water the last; and that waters containing any saline impregnation, ought not to be used at all in mortar.—Sect. XVII. Experiments shewing the bad effects of skimmed milk, serum of the blood, decoction of lint-seed, mucilage of lint-seed, olive oil, lint-seed oil, and resin, in mortar; with the effect of painting calcareous incrustations.—Sect. XIX. Experiments shewing the effects of crude antimony, lead matt, potters ore, white lead, arsenic, orpiment, martial pyrites, and flaked mundic, in mortar.—Sect. XX. Experiments shewing the effects of iron scales, washed colcothar, native red ochres, yellow ochres, umber, powder of coloured fluor, coloured mica, smalt, and other coloured bodies, in mortar; with advices concerning coloured incrustations, inside stucco, and damp walls.—Sect. XXI. Experiments shewing the effects of common wood-ashes, calcined or purer wood-ashes, elixated ashes, charcoal powder, sea-coal ashes, and powdered coak, in mortar; with observations on their integrant parts, and the differences between them and the powders of other bodies.—Sect. XXII. Experiments shewing the effects of white and grey bone-ashes, and the powder of charred bones; with the theory of the agency of those in the best calcareous cements.—Sect. XXIII. The specification made in consequence of letters patent, illustrated with notes.—Sect. XXIV. Experimental comparisons of chalk-lime with stone-lime. Advices to the manufacturers of chalk-lime, concerning the art of rendering it equal, if not superior, to stone-lime, for the purposes of builders, soap-boilers, and sugar bakers.—Sect. XXV. Directions respecting the houses already stuccoed with the new cement. Observations on the objections of certain artists; on the cementitious works of the Romans; on the experienced and unequalled duration of such cements; on the cements of Lorient and others; and on certain uses of the author's cement.

To

To have laid before our readers the many curious and useful observations that occur in this work, would have greatly exceeded the ordinary limits of a Review. We shall therefore conclude with observing, that it abounds with remarks, both theoretical and practical, which not only elucidate various principles in chemistry, but lay the foundation for such improvements in the method of building with mortar, as since the times of the ancient Romans appears to have been lost to the world.

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*Political Annals of the present United Colonies, from their Settlement to the Peace of 1763. By George Chalmers, Esq. 4to. 11. 1s. Boards. Bowen. (Concluded, from p. 11.)*

Maryland, our author observes, enjoys the honour of being the first colony which was erected into a province of the British empire, and governed regularly by laws enacted in a provincial legislature. This territory was granted by Charles I. to Sir George Calvert, who dying before the patent had passed the seals, the property was afterwards confirmed to his son, Cecilius Calvert, ancestor of the late lord Baltimore.

In the above mentioned patent it is observable, that there is no clause which obliges the proprietary to transmit the acts of assembly to the king, for approbation or dissent; nor any reservation of the royal interference in the government of the province. This essential defect, which the policy of Sir George Calvert, and the facility of Charles I. had created, was represented by the commissioners of plantations, to the commons, in 1733, and an act of parliament was about the same time proposed, as the only remedy for it. Our author justly observes, in regard to the construction of this charter, that

‘ The powers given to the proprietary are extremely large; the privileges conferred on the people are assuredly superior to those granted to other colonists: and there is a covenant on the part of the king and his successors, which is to be met with in no other colonial patent, which has given rise, during the present days, to a claim of exemption from parliamentary taxation. But well may be questioned the validity of a pretension so extraordinary and novel. For it supposes that prince to have transferred a power which the constitution had cautiously refused to the supreme executive magistrate: and it will be easily admitted, that one cannot give generally that to another which he does not himself possess. The monarchy of England had been at all times circumscribed by a limited constitution, though the privileges of the different members of the great body politic of the state had been variously modified, at different and distant periods of

of her annals. But, when kings ascended the throne, who attempted to exalt the prerogative upon the ruins of national liberty, either English barons or English commons sufficiently asserted the nature of the constitution, by the great charter, by its various confirmations, by the petition of right, which had been just wrong from the misguided Charles. No epoch, therefore, can be assigned in the history of England, when the king possessed the right, which had been sometimes exerted without it, of taxing the people, except with the national consent. And a privilege, thus ancient and important, the commons declared and enforced, when they resolved, in April, 1628: "That it is the undoubted right of the subject that no tax, or benevolence, or tallage, can be levied by the king, or any of his ministers, without common assent, by act of parliament." The inhabitants of Maryland, continuing, when they emigrated, English subjects, were entitled to the protection of English laws, and to the enjoyment of English liberties: they could no more consequently be subjected to taxes imposed, or to rules prescribed, by the royal prerogative alone, than could the people of England. And the covenant before mentioned was merely declaratory therefore of the ancient constitution, and granted nothing more than they were already entitled to possess from the common-laws of the realm. But as the king could not divest the people of any one privilege, so neither could he transfer any one right of the legislature. For, being only one constituent member of the supreme power, he must be subordinate to himself in parliament, the great body politic of the empire, and can alone perform no legislative act. And it is altogether incongruous, and contrary to principle to argue, that the rules of action, prescribed by the inferior, can bind the superior person or state.

Mr. Chalmers next proceeds to Providence, and Rhode-Island, both which derive their origin from the religious persecution in the province of Massachusetts. Their first settlement happening in the time of the civil wars in England, they procured patents from the parliament, which then exercised the sovereign power; and their constitutions were afterwards confirmed by a charter from Charles II. In the subsequent reign, however, on account of their refractory disposition, a writ of quo warranto was issued against their charter; but after the Revolution their former privileges were restored.

As Rhode-Island, so was Connecticut originally settled by emigrants from the province of Massachusetts. The settlement of Connecticut was begun in 1636, but its charter was not obtained till two years after the Restoration. The constitution both of this province and of Rhode-Island was a mere democracy, every power, legislative as well as executive, being vested in the freemen of the corporation or their delegates; the ministers

ministers of those times not attending even to the reservation of the royal prerogative. Our author observes, however, that the legality of such a charter may justly be questioned. Though a king of England may relinquish his station, yet he cannot, by his own grant, divest himself or his successors of the essential rights of his office.

Mr. Chalmers relates the subsequent history of this colony in the following terms :

‘ During the remainder of the reign of Charles II. that colony in a great measure acted rather as an independent state, than as the inconsiderable territory of a great nation. The general orders of that prince were contemned, because the royal interposition was deemed inconsistent with the charter. The acts of navigation were despised and disobeyed, because they were considered equally inconsistent with the freedom of trade as with the security of ancient privileges : and the courts of justice refused to allow appeals to England, because the powers of ultimate jurisdiction were claimed from the patent. That monarch beheld this conduct with regret, because he plainly perceived all its bad tendency : but he was too much engaged with other affairs, more interesting and important, and probably waited the issue of his contest with Massachusetts, which involved the fate of the whole, before he attempted to reduce it to a more immediate dependence on his crown.

‘ Connecticut, with the other colonies, congratulated James II. on his accession to the throne, acknowledged his authority, and begged for protection of their chartered privileges. He received the compliment with satisfaction, though he had already decided what course he should pursue with regard to colonial policy. Various articles of high misdemeanour were exhibited, in July, 1685, against the governor and company, before the lords commissioners of colonies ; impeaching them of making laws contrary to those of England ; of extorting unreasonable fines ; of enforcing an oath of fidelity in opposition to that of allegiance ; of intolerance in religion ; of denial of justice. These various accusations, which were supposed to infer a forfeiture of the charter, were instantly sent to Sawyer, attorney-general, with orders to issue a writ of *quo warranto* forthwith against the colony. He obeyed. And Randolph, who had acted as a public accuser, now offered his service to carry it beyond the Atlantic. The governor and company had for some time seen the storm approaching which threatened to lay their beloved system in the dust : and they endeavoured, with great address, to elude the force of what they were unable to resist. When they remembered the fatal accident which had formerly bereaved them of their ancient conveyance, they now carefully concealed their charter in a venerable elm ; which to this day is deemed sacred, as the preserver of their constitution. They wrote to the secretary of state, in January, 1687 ; professing their loyalty ; desiring  
to



to continue in the same station; but, were it the royal purpose to dispose otherwise of them, submitting to the royal commands. Randolph about the same time proposed it to the lords of the committee of colonies, as a thing absolutely necessary, "that the charter of Connecticut should be prosecuted with effect:" giving as a reason, what shews the extent of his views, "that they will employ none to defend it, but let the law take its course; that with the late government of Boston they may be passive, and not be said to give away the people's right." Though the advice was politic, nothing more seems to have been done than to order Andros to accept the submission of the colony, and to annex it to Massachusetts in conformity to its request. After receiving a variety of addresses from the governor and company, dictated by despair and hope alternately, as they were actuated by inclinations of resistance or desires of submission, Andros went to Hartford, in October, 1687. He published, in the general-court, his orders and commission; which every one tacitly obeyed: he dissolved the former government; he assumed the administration: and Treat, the late governor, and Alleyn, the secretary, he received into his legislative council "for the better carrying on the service of Connecticut."

When "the amazing tidings of the revolution at Boston" reached Connecticut, the inhabitants determined no longer to obey a governor, who, from commanding one half the colonies, was now confined in a jail. The chartered government was soon resumed; because the safety of the people was deemed the supreme law. And this they have enjoyed, notwithstanding the submission before-mentioned, with the approbation of eminent lawyers, though not without subsequent attacks, to the present days. English statesmen regretted, in after times, that Randolph's advice was not literally pursued.

In the fourteenth chapter the author resumes the detail of Virginian affairs, which he continues down to the Revolution; and in the fifteenth, he makes a transition to that of Maryland. In April 1687, the attorney-general received orders to issue a writ of quo warranto against the charter of this province; but owing to the slow procedure of a transaction of that kind, and the attention of the king being employed on affairs of greater importance, no judgment was ever obtained. In 1689, however, a revolt in the province put an end to the proprietary government, and the British legislature recovered the supreme authority which the colonists absurdly alledged had been renounced by the royal charter.

In the sixteenth chapter the author returns to the province of Massachusetts, where commissioners had been appointed by Charles the Second to enquire into its affairs. The extreme perverseness of this province, which from the beginning had acted in almost perpetual opposition to the authority of the British legislature, at last excited the resentment of the king to  
such

such a degree, that in 1683, a writ of quo warranto was ordered against their charter, and next year judgment was given for the crown in the high court of Chancery. From this time till the Revolution, the province appears to have been under an arbitrary government, notwithstanding which the colonists could they have been satisfied, enjoyed more real happiness than under the former administration.

In the seventeenth chapter the author recites the origin of the settlements of New-Hampshire and Main, the former of which, in 1635, was granted by the Plymouth company to Mason, and the latter to Sir Ferdinando Gorges. Those infant settlements, however, soon excited the jealousy of the Massachusetts, which arrogating over them an oppressive jurisdiction, they applied to Charles the Second for relief. Commissioners were appointed by the crown to settle the pretensions of the different parties. The result was, that Main was purchased by the general-court at Boston, and a royal government was established over New-Hampshire, which was afterwards annexed to Massachusetts.

Mr. Chalmers next proceeds to Carolina. This country, he observes, was the first theatre on which the three great naval powers of Europe, Spain, England, and France, contended for American sovereignty. It was first erected into a province in 1663, and conferred on lord Clarendon, the duke of Albemarle, lord Craven, lord Berkeley, lord Ashley, sir George Carteret, sir John Colleton, and sir William Berkely, as absolute lords proprietaries for ever; saving only the sovereign allegiance due to the crown. In the reign of James II. however, a writ of quo warranto was issued against the charter, and the proprietary government was dissolved.

In the subsequent chapter, the author relates the history of New-York, originally a Dutch settlement, but afterwards conquered by the English, and granted to the duke of York, as proprietary, at whose accession it devolved on the crown.

The next province mentioned by the historian is New-Jersey, which was granted by the duke of York to lord Berkeley, and sir George Carteret, in 1664, but the property was afterwards transferred. In 1686, a writ of quo warranto was issued against both East and West Jersey, and they were annexed to New-England not long after.

The twentieth chapter contains the history of Pennsylvania, which was granted by Charles II. to William Pen. In treating of this province Mr. Chalmers observes, that,

Nothing can be more amusing than to remark the singular legislative conduct of Locke and of Pen, so renowned as colonial legislators: the former, less skilled in the science of man, thought it

it sufficient to establish a learned system for a desert, expecting that the multitude would no sooner comprehend the beauty of its parts than obey it: the latter judged more wisely when he decided, "that there must be a people, before there can be a government; that the people must be united and free, before there can be a permanent government." In prosecution of these large views, he convened the first assembly at Chester, in December, 1682; consisting of seventy-two delegates, from the six counties into which had been already divided Pennsylvania and the Delaware colony, that was soon denominated the territories. Here, according to the frame, the freemen might have come for this time in their own persons, in the true spirit of Rousseau. But, not only the sheriffs by their returns, but the inhabitants by their petitions to the proprietary, declared, that the fewness of the people, their inability in estate, and unskillfulness in matters of government, will not permit them to act; thus shewing an example of humiliation, not common in the world. And they desired, therefore, that the deputies now chosen, may serve both for the provincial council and general assembly; three out of every county for the former, and nine for the latter. These representations, so agreeable to the designs of the proprietary, probably procured by him, were passed by the assembly without hesitation into an act of settlement. The persons, thus returned, were declared to be the legal council and assembly; and every county was empowered to send the same number in future, which in the same manner should constitute the legislature; and, after the addition of a few other explanations, the modified frame of government was solemnly recognized and accepted. When the whole reflected, "that nothing is more desirable than the union of a people," an act was passed, annexing the territories to this province, communicating to the one the same privileges, government, and laws, as the other already enjoyed. Nothing could be more wise than this policy; it is only to be regretted, that it was founded in usurpation, because, though to the soil of the Delaware colony Pen had the semblance of right, to the jurisdiction he had none. Over this transaction the assembly of 1704, with great grief, lamented, while it remonstrated to Pen in characteristic language: "That thou, who knew how precarious thy power was to govern the lower counties, should bring thy province into such a condition, that, when the crown had assumed that government, the privileges granted by thy second charter should become of no effect." Every foreigner, who promised allegiance to the king and obedience to the proprietary, was at the same time declared to be a freeman, and entitled to his rights. The numerous laws, which were enacted at this first assembly, which do so much honour to its good sense, display the principles of the people; these legislative regulations kept them alive long after the original spirit began to droop and expire. Had Pennsylvania been less blessed by nature, she must have become flourishing and great, because it was a principle of

her great charter, "that children should be taught some useful trade, to the end that none may be idle, but the poor may work to live, and the rich, if they became poor, may not want." That country must become commercial, which compels "factors, wronging their employers, to make satisfaction, and one third over;" which subjects not only the goods but the lands of the debtor to the payment of debts; because it is the credit given by all to all that forms the essence of traffic. We ought naturally to expect great internal order when a fundamental law declares, that every thing, "which excites the people to rudeness, cruelty, and irreligion, shall be discouraged and severely punished." And religious controversy could not disturb her repose, when none, acknowledging one God and living peaceably in society, could be molested for his opinions or his practice, or compelled to frequent or maintain any ministry whatsoever." To the regulations, which were thus established as fundamentals, must chiefly be attributed the rapid improvement of this colony, the spirit of diligence, order, and œconomy, for which the Pennsylvanians have been at all times so justly celebrated. It is a singularity in the history of this province, that neither its various systems, nor its fundamental laws, were communicated to the king for dissent or approbation, though so strongly enforced by the charter, which was really forfeited by an omission rather of design than neglect: Thus, evincing to the world how apt are the most rigid of men to disregard the rights of others when absorbed in what nearly interests themselves.

In the last chapter of the volume, the author, after having deduced the history of the American provinces from their origin to the Revolution, takes a general view of colonization, as it has been practised in different ages and countries. He particularly examines the constitutional privileges of the English colonies, which he maintains, by the clearest and most convincing arguments, to be ultimately dependent on the parent state. But as this subject has been already so fully discussed, we shall not now enter upon any investigation concerning it. At present, what demands our attention are the merits of the history, which we cannot but acknowledge to be written with great abilities, as well as extraordinary care. The information is every where authenticated by the most satisfactory documents, and the narrative is not only clear and elevated, but abounds with judicious remarks.

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*Memoirs of the Marshal Duke of Berwick. Written by Himself. With a summary Continuation from the Year 1716, to his Death 1734. 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. Cadell. (Concluded, from p. 43.)*

**W**E suspended our account of these Memoirs at the year 1702, the time when the duke of Berwick informs us he began to set down regularly every thing that passed. At this period the duke

duke of Burgundy was appointed to the command of the French army in Flanders, having marshal Boufflers under him; and the duke of Berwick was also ordered on the same service, in the detail of which we are presented with an accurate account of the military operations that ensued.

In 1704, the emperor having, through the interest of England and Holland, engaged Portugal to declare for the league, resolved to send his second son, the archduke Charles, into that kingdom, in order, by his presence, to encourage the Spaniards to oppose Philip V. We are informed he was induced to this step chiefly by the assurances of the admiral of Castile, who had taken refuge at Lisbon, and represented that the Spanish nation was ready to rise upon the least appearance of support. The emperor, therefore, declared the archduke king of Spain, and sent him into Holland, whence he was to sail for Portugal, with twelve thousand English and Dutch troops. On this intelligence the king of France caused eighteen battalions, and nineteen squadrons, to march into Spain to his grandson's assistance, and the duke of Berwick was appointed to the command of this army. He arrived at Madrid the 15th of February, and was immediately nominated by his catholic majesty captain-general of his forces. The military arrangements which the duke made, as well as the operations that followed, appear to have been conducted with great judgment, and are related with all the marks of the most unreserved ingenuousness. At the end of the campaign he was recalled to France, having been previously invested by the king of Spain with the order of the Golden Fleece.

Next year the duke of Berwick was sent to command in Languedoc, in the room of the marshal de Villars. At the command of the king he undertook the siege of Nice, then reputed one of the strongest places in Europe, and of which he made himself master before the close of the campaign.

In February 1706, the duke was created marshal of France, and at the same time ordered to go into Spain, to resume the command of the army against Portugal. After a detail of the operations which ensued, the duke observes that this year was replete with unfortunate events for France and Spain. Flanders was lost by the battle of Ramillies; Italy by that of Turin; and Spain by the raising of the siege of Barcelona, and by the retreat from Madrid. It ought to be remarked, however, in justice to the duke of Berwick, that the siege of Barcelona was not one of those operations which he conducted, and that he had the honour of retrieving the disaster which had befallen the Spanish arms.

Immediately after the battle of Almanza, the king of Spain bestowed upon the duke of Berwick the towns of Liria and Xerica, with all their dependencies; erecting them into a dukedom, with the title of grandee of the first class, for him and his descendants. These lands had formerly been the appanage of the second sons of the kings of Arragon.

In 1708, the duke arrived at Versailles, where he was appointed to command the army in Dauphiny, in the room of the marshal de Tessé; but shortly after, this appointment was changed, and the duke went second in command, in the army under the elector of Bavaria; in which station, however, it appears that he chiefly conducted the military operations.

In 1709, the king erected the territory of Warty into a dukedom and peerage, for our author and his heirs male of the second marriage. He had the name of Warty changed into that of Fitz-James.

After various services in the French army, we again find the duke of Berwick commander in chief of the Spanish forces in 1714, when he reduced the garrison and city of Barcelona, after a most obstinate siege, and at the end of the campaign returned to France.

At this period of the Memoirs we become acquainted with the intrigues which had commenced for restoring the family of Stuart to the British throne. Those transactions appear to have been managed chiefly by the abbé Gautier, said to have been employed by the earl of Oxford, who was lately made lord high treasurer, and promised to send the duke of Berwick a plan for conducting their operations.

At length, (says the Author of the Memoirs) finding the time slip away without obtaining any plan from Oxford, and being moreover informed that Queen Ann's health was daily on the decline, I suspected more than ever that the lord treasurer was deceiving us, especially as I knew he had written to the elector of Hanover, and had just sent his cousin Harley to that court. I therefore opened myself upon this point to M. de Torcy, minister of foreign affairs, and through whom all my correspondence with Gautier and Oxford was carried on. He agreed with me, that the lord treasurer's conduct was very extraordinary; and we resolved to write to him, to represent that, as queen Ann's death might happen very shortly, it was necessary he should inform us what measures he had taken in that case to secure the interest of \* \* \* \*, as well as the steps that prince ought to take. His answer was, that if the queen were to die, the affairs of \* \* \* \*, and their own, were ruined without resource. This was all we ever could get out of him, which was a clear proof that he imposed upon us; for if he had really had the intentions he declared to us, he would not have been so long with-  
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but thinking of the means of carrying them into execution ; nor would he have neglected, for his own sake, and that of the Tory party, to secure himself against the rage of the Whigs, who, he he knew, would never forgive him, if once they got the power in their hands. This lethargy could not proceed from his want of understanding or courage, for no man had more of them than he: it was therefore morally certain, that his only motive in all the advances he had hitherto made to us, had been his own interest in endeavouring to join the Jacobites with the Tories, and by that means securing to himself a majority in parliament, that the peace might be approved of. As soon as he had compassed this end, he thought of nothing but to be upon good terms with the house of Hanover ; and as to \* \* \* \* \*, he amused him from time to time with some new proposal of changing his religion, or at least pretending to do so. The court of France, as well as we, were then persuaded that Oxford was imposing upon us ; but as they had concluded their principal business by his means, they were easily comforted.

‘ As for me, I strongly solicited the duke of Ormond and many other persons ; I advised them to awake from their lethargy, and take their precautions against the misfortunes that would befall them, if the queen should die : I represented to them that their private interest was the same as that of \* \* \* \* \* ; that there was no longer any time for them to hesitate ; and that they must chuse the alternative, either of being ruined, they and their party, or of restoring that prince. Convinced by what we were continually representing to them, they exerted themselves, and by means of lady Masham, prevailed upon the queen to remove the lord high treasurer, as it was not possible to conduct the affair properly while he remained in office. She therefore dismissed Oxford in the beginning of August 1714. The other ministers did not doubt of being able to carry on their projects without opposition ; but unfortunately, before the new ministry could have time to concert their measures together, every hope of success was precluded by the death of the queen, which happened on the 12th of August, 1714, four days after the earl of Oxford’s dismissal. The elector of Hanover was instantly proclaimed king, agreeable to the act passed since the Revolution, and by his orders every thing was changed.

‘ I was then in Catalonia, at too great a distance to be able to act, or even to give advice ; and had I been at Paris, I should have been much embarrassed, considering the situation of affairs at that time. It was not our fault, that we had not concerted any arrangements, in case of the event which had just happened ; and France, however well she inclined might be, was not in a condition to risk a new war to support the interest of the young \* \* \* \* \*. No measures had been taken, nor indeed could they have been, on our side of the water ; it was the business of the well-affected party in England to prescribe to us what we ought to do, and

they having not yet the entire ascendant, had not had opportunity to settle their plans.

As soon as \* \* \* \* \* learned the death of his sister, he set off post from Bar in Lorraine, where he resided since the peace of Utrecht, and went incognito to Paris, to consult the queen his mother and his other friends, fully resolved to go over afterwards into the island of Great Britain, to lay claim to his right. The court of France, informed of this step, sent M. de Torcy to persuade him to return from whence he came; and if fair reasons did not prevail, he had orders to declare, that they should be indispensibly obliged to compel him. \* \* \* \* \* therefore, receiving no comfortable intelligence from his friends in England, where universal consternation prevailed, and not knowing where he could land in safety, determined to go back to Bar.

It clearly appears from these Memoirs, that the cause which procrastinated, and in the end defeated the attempts for restoring the family of Stuart, was the absolute refusal of the court of France to furnish either money, or such a body of troops, as was requisite for the undertaking. In this extremity, we find that the duke of Berwick applied for assistance to the king of Sweden, who, it is probable, was prevented only by the situation of his own affairs from granting the aid which was requested.

The character of this prince (says the duke of Berwick), whose views were always great, and the private interest he would have in dethroning king George, led me to hope that he would assist us in the execution of our projects, more especially as there was no other apparent method of relieving him from the critical situation in which he was in. I represented to him the just pretensions of \* \* \* \* \*, the glory there would be in restoring an oppressed prince, and the advantageous consequences which he must necessarily acquire from it, not to mention the eternal gratitude of the \* \* \* \* \* for so great a benefit. The affair appeared to me so much the more easy, as there was not even a suspicion that it had entered into our thoughts, and as there were at the time seven or eight thousand Swedes encamped about Gottenburg: add to this, that there were several transports in that harbour, designed to convey those troops to Stralsund, and that from Gottenburg, one might sail, with the same wind, straight into Scotland or England, the passage not being more than eight-and-forty hours.

When I proposed this idea to the court of France, it was considered as chimerical; but after we had spoken of it to the baron de Spaar, the ambassador from Sweden, and it was seen that he seemed inclined to approve of it, I was permitted to negotiate. M. de Torcy and I held several conferences with Spaar upon this subject; and to facilitate the enterprize, it was agreed that his most christian majesty should pay the arrears of subsidies due to the king of Sweden, and that \* \* \* \* \* should give



give immediately fifty thousand crowns for the costs of embarkation. Spaar sent off a courier with the dispatches for his master, and sent at the same time an officer into Holland, with the remittance of the fifty thousand crowns I had given him, that if the answers from Sweden were favourable, that sum might be forwarded without loss of time to Gottenburg. Unfortunately the king of Sweden was then in Stralsund, besieged both by sea and land, so that it was a very long time before the courier could deliver his letters. The king's answer was couched in very polite terms; but he said, that in the present situation of his affairs, he could not part with any of his troops, as he was so much in want of them for the defence of his own dominions; besides, that king George had not yet declared against him. However, he assured \* \* \* \* of his friendship, of which he would hereafter give him proofs.

It is certain that the king of Sweden missed a glorious opportunity of advancing his own affairs, or rather, of relieving himself from oppression; for \* \* \* \* being once restored, he would have drawn supplies of money, men, and ships from him, sufficient to enable him to reconquer all he had lost. According to the rules of good sense, the revolution in England could not then have failed, if the well affected had been supported by a body of regular forces. King George was universally hated, and had but very few troops on foot in Great Britain; but the king of Sweden, who was then taken up with the thoughts of saving Stralsund, in which he flattered himself unseasonably, had no person near him, to shew him the utility of our project, and the fallacy of his own designs.

He afterwards intended, in 1716, to undertake a descent in England; but the face of affairs was then totally changed; and if he had made it, there is reason to think, considering the large army king George had in England, and the succours which the Dutch would not have failed to send him, that it would have miscarried.

The detail of those negociations is interrupted by the death of Lewis XIV. whose character is thus drawn by the duke of Berwick.

About the 20th of August, Lewis the XIVth, king of France, fell sick, and died on the 1st of September, 1715. No man ever shewed greater steadiness, and less fear of death; even submissive, and resigned to the will of God. He gave all the orders he thought necessary, and then waited quietly for the hour of his dissolution. He had been a long time engaged in these serious reflections; and he had often said to the queen of England, he was aware, on account of his age, that he soon must die, and therefore he was every day preparing for death, that he might not be surprised by it. A very different opinion was entertained of him in the world, for it was imagined that he could not bear to be spoken to about death. But I have been told

what I have just mentioned by the queen herself, a princess of great veracity.

‘ It must be owned that no prince was ever so little known as this monarch. The Protestants made him pass throughout Europe for a man of difficult access, cruel and false. I have frequently had the honour of audiences from him, and have been very familiarly admitted to his presence; and I can affirm that his pride was only in his appearance. He was born with an air of majesty, which struck every body so much, that one could not approach him without being seized with awe and respect; but as soon as any one was going to speak to him, he softened his countenance, and had the art of putting you in the instant quite at your ease with him: he was the most polite man in his kingdom; and his answers were accompanied with so many obliging expressions, that if he granted any thing, the value of it was doubly enhanced; and if he refused, one could not complain. There never was a more humane king since the commencement of the monarchy. There was no blood spilt among the great during the course of his reign, except that of the chevalier de Rohan; and he lost his life only because no one had the friendship or courage to solicit his pardon; for the king, in going to, and returning from mass on the morning of the execution, turned himself round on every side, to see if there were not some of his relations or friends ready to throw themselves at his feet.

‘ With respect to his good faith, I know that every thing he has done in violation of treaties will be urged against it; but I dare affirm, that he never violated any treaty, till after he had been persuaded that his enemies had first infringed it; and without approving of these infractions, what prince, or what nation, can boast of having always preferred truth and justice to their interests? The dispute will be reduced to the greater or less degree of injustice; for it may be confidently asserted, that religion, equity and kindred seem no longer to be the motives that actuate us; and that we think every thing allowable to satisfy our ambition, and procure us any advantage.’

From being an active negotiator in the cause of the exiled family, the duke of Berwick was again called in 1716, to take a military command in Guienne. At this period the Memoirs terminate, and the remaining part of the work is an abridged continuation of them, taken from the letters of the marshal of Berwick, and principally from his correspondence with the ministry. This celebrated personage was killed by a cannon ball at the siege of Philippsburg, in 1734. To the few traits of his character which we gave in our last Review, we shall, for the satisfaction of our readers, add the following extracts.

‘ In the hurry of the most difficult operations, and the heat of the warmest actions, the marshal of Berwick preserved that tranquillity and coolness which is the effect of natural intrepidity

duty, and a perfect knowledge of that art, which in shewing us all we have to fear from an enemy, points out at the same time what we have to oppose to him. This tranquility of mind was likewise the consequence of that firmness and resolution which places the wise man so far above the reach of accidents, because he never has any thing to reproach himself with. In all his enterprises he had likewise that success, which, for the most part, attends a great man, because his enlarged understanding enables him to comprehend the whole of his object; nothing escapes him; the accuracy of his judgment forms true combinations, and never fails to point out the proper path: in a word, because the diligence he uses in the execution of his designs, and which is the guarantee of success, is always under the direction of prudence.'

'The marshal of Berwick was not without ambition; but that passion, which more or less misleads almost every man who is possessed with it, never made him deviate from the path of virtue. He was fond of glory; but he sought it chiefly in the line of his duty, which no one knew or performed better than himself. Far different from those who acquit themselves with a servile caution, and always seem to be on their guard lest they should do too much, he measured the extent of his duty by his talents, persuaded that the use and the account of them is due to God, from whom they were received; to one's king and one's country, for the service of which they were given; and to one's self, for the ease of one's conscience. There is no modern better calculated than the marshal of Berwick to renew the idea of the great men of antiquity, particularly the Greeks.'

We shall close our account of the Marshal Duke of Berwick with observing, that those Memoirs will transmit his name to posterity, not only as a general of the first distinction, but one who has also seldom been equalled in the talents of a writer.

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*A Tour in Ireland; with general Observations on the present State of that Kingdom: made in the Years 1776, 1777, and 1778; and brought down to the End of 1779. By Arthur Young, Esq. F. R. S. 4to. 11. 1s. Boards. Cadell.*

**W**HEN the maritime nations of Europe were employed in prosecuting discoveries in India and America, with the view of importing the treasures which those quarters of the world contained, we may venture to affirm that they procured less advantage to their respective countries than the man who, by investigating the principles of agriculture, endeavours to excite the nation to an improvement of its own internal resources. In this light the present voyage to Ireland may vie in utility, though not in splendor, even with those of Gama and Columbus.

In the prosecution of this Tour, Mr. Young landed in Ireland June 20, 1776, at a place called Dualary, four miles from Dublin. This city, he informs us, much exceeded his expectation; the public buildings being magnificent, many of the streets regularly laid out, and extremely well built. On his first visit to this capital, however, his stay was short, for he left it the 24th of the month, and proceeded to Luttrell's Town, where he begins his observations on Irish agriculture. But for this part of the detail we must refer our readers to the work, and content ourselves with only giving an account of what appears to be most generally interesting.

From Luttrell's Town Mr. Young directs his course by Mr. Clements at Killadoon, colonel Marlay's at Cellbridge, Laughlinstown, Lucan, and Mr. Conolly's at Castle-town. This house, he informs us, is the finest in Ireland, and not exceeded by many in England. He next reaches Cartown, the seat of the duke of Leinster, and remarkable for a beautiful park. Mr. Jones of Dolestown, whom the author afterwards visits, has, we are told, in an extensive practice of agriculture, tried some experiments of consequence. He has cultivated potatoes for cattle; and had, at one time, twelve store bullocks keeping upon them. They liked the food much, and ate three barrels a day, each weighing five hundred weight. For his horses he boils the potatoes, which he gives mixed with bran, and finds that the horses do very well on them, without oats.

Respecting this subject, we are also informed that Mr. Armstrong, of King's county, had lately eighty sheep, which, during the snow, got to his potatoes, and ate them freely. He picked forty of them, and put them to that food regularly. They fattened very quick, much sooner than forty others at hay, and yielded him a great price at the market.

Mr. Young proceeds then to Summerhill, the seat of Mr. Rowley, who appears to be an improver of agriculture; as likewise is lord Mornington at Dangan, the place which our author next visited. Lord Conyngham's seat at Slaine castle, on the Boyne, is said to be exceedingly beautiful; as is likewise Mr. Lambert's house, situated on the bank of the same river. Not far hence is an extensive improvement of Mr. Fortescue's. Ten years ago the land was let at three shillings and six pence, but now at a guinea, by the means of lime and fallowing. Such is the general increase of prosperity in the neighbourhood, colonel Burton assured our author, that twenty years ago, if he gave notice at the mass-houses, that he wanted labourers, in two days he could have two or three hundred; but now, from the quantity of regular employment, it is not so easy to procure twenty. Here, and in other places where is no turf,  
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our author found the common people burning straw: a practice which, he observes, must be extremely prejudicial to agriculture.

Returning to Slaine castle from an excursion, the author visited Mr. Jebb, at whose house is a remarkable fine mill, finished in the year 1776. The water from the Boyne is conducted to it by a wear six hundred and fifty feet long, twenty-four feet base, and eight feet high, of solid masonry. The water is let into it by flood-gates.

The canal (says our author) is 800 feet long, all faced with stone, and 64 feet wide; on one side is a wharf completely formed and walled against the river, whereon are offices of several kinds, and a dry dock for building lighters. The mill is 138 feet long, the breadth 54, and the height to the cornice 42, being a very large and handsome edifice, such as no mill I have seen in England can be compared with. The corn upon being unloaded, is hoisted through doors in the floors to the upper story of the building, by a very simple contrivance, being worked by the water-wheel, and discharged into spacious granaries which hold 5000 barrels. From thence it is conveyed, during seven months in the year, to the kiln for drying, the mill containing two, which will dry 80 barrels in 24 hours. From the kiln it is hoisted again to the upper story, from thence to a fanning machine for re-dressing, to get out dirt, soil, &c. And from thence, by a small sifting machine, into the hoppers, to be ground, and is again hoisted into the bolting mills, to be dressed into flour, different sorts of pollard and bran. In all which progress, the machinery is contrived to do the business with the least labour possible: it will grind with great ease 120 barrels, of 20 stone each, every day. Beginning in 1763, for a few years, about 13000 barrels per ann. were ground, of late years up to 17000 barrels. It may be observed, that this mill is very different from the English ones, they not being under the necessity of kiln drying or dressing. The expence, per barrel, of the drying in coals and labour is 3d. and the waste is 1-20th in the weight: but the contrivance reduces the expence of dressing to a trifle.

Mr. Young next visits Lord Bective's seat at Headfort, where extraordinary improvements have been made within these seventeen years. His lordship, we are told, transplants oaks twenty feet high without any danger, and they appear to thrive perfectly well; but he always takes up a large ball of earth with the roots. He also confirmed what Mr. Young had been told before, that the way to make our own firs equal to foreign, is to cut them in June, and directly lay them in water for three or four months. This was done by his lordship's father thirty-five years ago, and the buildings raised of them are now fully equal to those built of Norway fir. Lord Bective's father appears to have been an extraordinary improver.

He

He bought ten thousand acres of bog and rough land in the county of Cavan, much at the rent of only twenty pence an acre. He drained the bog, divided it, and so much improved it, though a red one, that it now yields fifteen shillings an acre.

The author proceeds to lord Longford's seat at Pakenham hall, where the following account of the Irish peasantry was obtained by Mr. Young in a conversation with his lordship. It is worthy of being communicated to our readers.

‘—I found that in some respects they were in good circumstances, in others indifferent; they have, generally speaking, each plenty of potatoes, as always to command a bellyful; they have flax enough for all their linen, most of them have a cow and some two, and spin wool enough for their cloaths; all a pig, and numbers of poultry, and in general the complete family of cows, calves, hogs, poultry, and children, pig together in the cabin: fuel they have in the utmost plenty; great numbers of families are also supported by the neighbouring lakes, which abound prodigiously with fish; a child, with a packthread and a crooked pin, will catch perch enough in an hour for the family to live on the whole day, and his lordship has seen 500 children fishing at the same time, there being no tenaciousness in the proprietors of the lands about a right to the fish; besides perch, there is pike upwards of five feet long, bream, tench, trout of 10 lb. and as red as a salmon, and fine eels; all these are favourable circumstances, and are very conspicuous in the numerous and healthy families among them.

‘Reverse the medal: they are ill-clothed, and make a wretched appearance, and what is worse, are much oppressed by many who make them pay too dear for keeping a cow, horse, &c. They have a practice also of keeping accounts with the labourers, contriving by that means, to let the poor wretches have very little cash for their year's work. This is a great oppression, farmers and gentlemen keeping accounts with the poor is a cruel abuse: so many days work for a cabin—so many for a potatoe garden—so many for keeping a horse—and so many for a cow, are clear accounts which a poor man can understand well, but farther it ought never to go; and when he has worked out what he has of this sort, the rest of his work ought punctually to be paid him every Saturday night. Another circumstance mentioned was the excessive practice they have in general of pilfering. They steal every thing they can lay their hands on—and, I should remark, that this is an account which has been very generally given me: all sorts of iron hinges, chains, locks, keys, &c.—gates will be cut in pieces, and conveyed away in many places as fast as built; trees as big as a man's body, and that would require ten men to move, gone in a night. Lord Longford has had the new wheels of a car stolen as soon as made.

Good

Good stones out of a wall will be taken for a fire-heap, &c. though a breach is made to get at them. In short, every thing, and even such as are apparently of no use to them—nor is it easy to catch them, for they never carry their stolen goods home, but to some bog-hole. Turneps are stolen by cart loads; and two acres of wheat plucked off in a night. In short, their pilfering and stealing is a perfect nuisance! how far it is owing to the oppression of laws aimed solely at the religion of these people, how far to the conduct of the gentlemen and farmers, and how far to the mischievous disposition of the people themselves, it is impossible for a passing traveller to ascertain. I am apt to believe that a better system of law and management would have good effects. They are much worse treated than the poor in England, are talked to in more opprobrious terms, and otherwise very much oppressed.

Our author informs us, that on the road to Tullamore, stopping at lord Belvedere's, he was as much struck with the place as with any he had ever seen; the house, we are told, being perched on the summit of a beautiful hill, half surrounded with others, variegated and melting into one another; on some parts of which are scattered single trees, and others are decorated with clumps.

The author directs his course thence to Rathfriland, where lord Shelburne is making great improvements in a bog four thousand acres in extent. He afterwards arrives at Shaen castle, near Mount-Mellick, the seat of dean Coote. Besides various particulars respecting the agriculture in the neighbourhood, Mr. Young here found from conversation, that nothing was so unpopular in Ireland as the idea of a union with Great Britain; the great objection to which was its increasing the number of absentees.

The traveller's route is continued by Laughlin-bridge, Mount-Juliet, the seat of lord Carrick, Kilfaine, Thomastown, and Woodstock, the last stage of which journey was the finest ride Mr. Young had hitherto had in Ireland.

In perusing this work, the attention to rural oeconomy is interrupted by an account of the White Boys, who had committed great outrages in several parts of the country through which the author had passed.

'I made many enquiries, says he, into the origin of those disturbances, and found that no such thing as a leveller, or white-boy, was heard of till 1760, which was long after the landing of Thurot, or the intended expedition of M. Conflans. That no foreign coin was ever seen among them, though reports to the contrary were circulated; and in all the evidence that was taking during ten or twelve years, in which time their appearance a variety of informers, none was ever taken, whose testimony

money could be relied on, that ever proved any foreign interposition. These very few, who attempted to favour it, were of the most infamous and perjured characters. All the rest, whose interest it was to make the discovery, if they had known it, and who concealed nothing else, pretended to no such knowledge. No foreign money appeared; no arms of foreign construction; no presumptive proof whatever of such a connection. They began in Tipperary, and were owing to some inclosures of commons, which they threw down, levelling the ditches; and were first known by the name of levellers. After that, they began with the tythe-proctors, (who are men that hire tythes of the rectors) and these proctors either screwed the cottars up to the utmost shilling, or re-let the tythes to such as did it. It was a common practice with them to go in parties about the country, swearing many to be true to them, and forcing them to join, by menaces, which they very often carried into execution. At last they set up to be general redressers of grievances—punished all obnoxious persons who advanced the value of lands, or hired farms over their heads, and having taken the administration of justice into their own hands, were not very exact in the distribution of it. Forced masters to release their apprentices, carried off the daughters of rich farmers, ravished them into marriages, of which four instances happened in a fortnight. They levied sums of money on the middling and lower farmers, in order to support their cause, by paying attornies, &c. in defending prosecutions against them; and many of them subsisted for some years without work, supported by these contributions. Sometimes they committed several considerable robberies, breaking into houses and taking the money, under pretence of redressing grievances. In the course of these outrages, they burnt several houses, and destroyed the whole substance of men obnoxious to them. The barbarities they committed were shocking. One of their usual punishments (and by no means the most severe) was taken people out of their beds, carrying them naked in winter, on horse back, for some distance, and burying them up to their chin in a hole filled with briars, not forgetting to cut off one of their ears. In this manner the evil existed for eight or ten years; during which time the gentlemen of the county took some measures to quell them. Many of the magistrates were active in apprehending them; but the want of evidence prevented punishments for many of those who even suffered by them, had not spirit to prosecute. The gentlemen of the country had frequent expeditions to discover them in arms; but their intelligence was so uncommonly good by their influence over the common people, that not one party that ever went out in quest of them was successful. Government offered large rewards for informations, which brought a few every year to the gallows, without any radical cure for the evil. The reason why it was not more effective was, the necessity of any person that gave evidence against them, quitting their houses and country, or remaining exposed



for their resentment. At last their violence rose to a height which brought on their suppression. The popish inhabitants of Ballyragget, six miles from Kilkenny, were the first of the lower people who dared openly to associate against them; they threatened destruction to the town, gave notice that they would attack it, were as good as their word, came 200 strong, drew up before a house in which were 15 armed men, and fired in at the windows: the 15 men handled their arms so well, that in a few rounds they killed 40 or 50. They fled immediately, and ever after left Ballyragget in peace—indeed they have never been resisted at all, without shewing a great want of both spirit and discipline. It should, however, be observed, that they had but very few arms, those in bad order, and no catridges.

The ravages of those banditti appear to have been happily suppressed by the vigorous exertions both of government and private persons; but our author is of opinion, that what has very much contributed to abate the evil, was the fall in the price of lands, which has lately taken place.

Mr. Young afterwards takes the road to Wexford, and arrives at lord Courtown's, where he met with the first field of turneps which he saw in Ireland. This nobleman also is remarkable for his improvements. His sandy lands by the coast he marles richly, and with so good effect that the crops are very great. The finest wheat which our author had yet seen in Ireland was on this land.

Leaving Courtown, the author proceeds by general Cunningham's seat at Mount-Kennedy, the Dargle, Drogheda, Cullen, &c. His route is afterwards diversified with many beautiful lakes and islands, which he describes in glowing colours. Among those is the lake of Killarney, so much celebrated both in prose and verse. In a country abounding with enchanting scenes, it affords us pleasure to find that the arts of industry have begun to make great progress. Of this we meet with one instance in the town of Galway. A merchant of that place, sixteen years ago, imported the first cargo of flax-seed of three hundred hogsheads, and could only sell a hundred of them; but now the annual importation rises to one thousand five hundred, to two thousand three hundred. Twenty years ago there were in Galway only twenty looms, and now there are a hundred and eighty.

If the Irish peasantry be in general extremely poor, they seem, however, not to discover that temper of mind which is the usual characteristic of oppression; for we are told that dancing is almost universal among them.

—Dancing-masters of their own rank, says the author, travel through the country from cabin to cabin, with a piper or blind fiddler; and the pay is six pence a quarter. It is an absolute sys-

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tem of education. Weddings are always celebrated with much dancing; and a Sunday rarely passes without a dance; there are very few among them who will not, after a hard day's work, gladly walk seven miles to have a dance. John is not so lively, but then a hard day's work with him is certainly a different affair from what it is with Paddy. Other branches of education are likewise much attended to, every child of the poorest family learning to read, write, and cast accounts.

There is a very ancient custom here, for a number of country neighbours among the poor people, to fix upon some young woman that ought, as they think, to be married; they also agree upon a young fellow as a proper husband for her; this determined, they send to the fair one's cabin to inform her, that on the Sunday following she is to be horsed, that is, carried on men's backs. She must then provide whisky and cyder for a treat, as all will pay her a visit after mas for a hurling match. As soon as she is horsed, the hurling begins, in which the young fellow appointed for her husband, has the eyes of all the company fixed on him; if he comes off conqueror, he is certainly married to the girl, but if another is victorious, he as certainly loses her, for she is the prize of the victor. These trials are not always finished in one Sunday, they take sometimes two or three, and the common expression when they are over is, that such a girl was goal'd. Sometimes one barony hurls against another, but a marriageable girl is always the prize. Hurling is a sort of cricket, but instead of throwing the ball in order to knock down a wicket, the aim is to pass it through a bent stick, the ends stuck in the ground. In these matches they perform such feats of activity as ought to evidence the food they live on to be far from deficient in nourishment.

To the narrative of this tour in Ireland Mr. Young has subjoined a variety of observations relative to the facts he had stated; and these are divided into sections. The first, which is employed on the extent of Ireland, enumerates the quantity of acres in each county; from which it appears, that the number of acres in the whole kingdom amounts to eleven millions of acres, Irish measure, or eighteen millions English. The second section gives a general account of the soil, face of the country, and climate. Our author informs us that the circumstance which strikes him as the greatest singularity of Ireland, is the rockyness of the soil, which should seem unfavourable to its fertility; but the contrary is the fact.

—Stone is so general, says he, that I have great reason to believe the whole island is one vast rock of different strata and kinds rising out of the sea. I have rarely heard of any great depths being sunk without meeting with it. In general it appears on the surface in every part of the kingdom, the flattest and most fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almost as much as the more barren ones. May we not recognize

recognize in this the hand of bounteous providence, which has given, perhaps, the most stoney soil in Europe to the moiftest climate in it? If as much rain fell upon the clays of England (a foil very rarely met with in Ireland, and never without much stone) as falls upon the rocks of her fister ifland, thofe lands could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are cloathed with verdure:—thofe of lime ftone with only a thin covering of mold, have the foftest and moft beautiful turf imaginable.’

In fubfequent fections the author gives an account of the rental of Ireland, the tenantry, the labouring poor, their food, cloathing, and habitations; religion, price of provifions; roads, carrs, timber, planting, manures, wafte lands, cattle, wool, winter food, tythes, church lands, abfentees, population, public works, Dublin fociety, manners and customs, trade, manufactures, revenue, taxes, fisheries, embargoes, and government.

The obfervations in this part of the work are highly valuable to thofe who wifh to be fully acquainted with the ftate of Ireland in every particular; and when we confider not only their multiplicity, but the minutenefs and accuracy of calculation with which they are detailed, we cannot withhold from expreffing our warmeft approbation of the induftry and public fpirit fo eminently difplayed by this judicious writer, whofe indefatigable exertions have fo much contributed to the improvement of agriculture. Such remarks as thofe he has made afford the moft certain means both of afcertaining the principles, and extending the rational practice, of rural oeconomics, at the fame time that they throw a ftrong light on the intricate theory of legiflation.

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*History of the Political Connection between England and Ireland, from the Reign of Henry II. to the prefent Time. 4to. 7s. 6d. fewed. Cadell.*

**T**HE design of this effay is to exhibit a candid account of the Political Connection which has fubfifted between England and Ireland fince the firft invafion of the latter by Henry II. To relate this with impartiality, the author has avoided the eftablifhing any fystem, or dedueing any conclufions; contenting himfelf with the recital of facts, from which the reader may be enabled to determine how far the different representations which have been given of this fubject are confiftent with truth.

He begins with an account of the ftate of Ireland in the time of Henry the Second, and its invafion by that monarch; relating, in the fecond chapter, the progrefs made in the conqueft of that kingdom during the reign of this prince. The author feems to place in a juft light the motives and intentions  
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of Henry in admitting his son John to a share of the sovereignty.

Had the Irish leaders (says he) preserved any union or cordiality among themselves, they could scarcely have failed in the extirpation of the English colonists. The latter were sensible of this disadvantage of their situation, and it became the chief object of their policy to divide enemies whom they could not oppose when united. In most of their wars, some Irish chief is found on their side. In the year 1177, the son of Roderic O'Connor, king of Ireland, engaged with them in war against his father. It would appear that none of the stipulations contained in the pacification of Windsor had been fulfilled by Roderic; and the English thought themselves at liberty to invade his territories under the conduct of his son. The distracted state of Ireland now called loudly for the interposition of Henry; but the situation of his affairs allowed him not either to repair to that kingdom, or to send thither any force. He wished, however, to prompt his subjects to interpose; and, as the prospect of obtaining lands in Ireland had been the capital inducement to the first adventurers, he resolved, on this occasion, to hold forth a similar temptation. He accordingly reconveyed to new vassals grants of lands in Leinster, which had been forfeited, or of which the former grants had expired, and he distributed among such other Lords as could best realize his royal donation, the greater part of the lands of Munster. These distributions were regulated by principles entirely feudal; and the services and soldiers are mentioned which each vassal was to provide for the defence of the sovereign. To add popularity and dignity to the project, he assumed into a share of the sovereignty of Ireland his youngest son John, and appointed the tenures of lands to proceed in the names of both conjointly. He procured from the pope a ratification of the dignity he had conferred on his son, and he communicated the whole negotiation to a great council of English bishops and peers convened at Oxford.

This is the simple account of the settlement of the crown of Ireland by Henry II. on his son John, as related by contemporary writers, which has been the subject of so much political discussion, and has been supposed to involve important conclusions relative to the independence of that kingdom. Nothing seems to have been more distant from Henry's intentions, than, by this transaction, to separate from his crown the sovereignty of that island. That sovereignty, indeed, if we except the small part of the country possessed by the English, was at this time merely nominal; and it would incur ridicule to confer a title which he had not to bestow. His design cannot be supposed to be any other than to induce his subjects, under the protection and countenance of his son, to procure for him a dominion which he had lost, and which he possessed not resources to procure for himself. But it is unnecessary to speculate on a subject concerning which authorities are so decisive. According to an original

charter which still exists, the express words of Henry, annexed to the grants of land on this occasion, were, "Tenendam de me et Johanne filio meo," and the "servitia facienda mihi et Johanni filio meo, et haeredibus nostris."

The author observes, that the account given by Matthew Paris, of the council held by Henry II. at Lismore, where the laws of England were cheerfully accepted by the Irish, and oaths were taken by them for the careful observance of those laws, if founded in truth, can only refer to the submission of the Irish, or be restricted entirely to the English colonists. Nothing being more certain than that Henry did not demand of the Irish a renunciation of their laws and customs; besides that the conferring of the privileges of English subjects, was afterwards considered as a favour, and was frequently the object of earnest solicitation. This remark appears to be well founded; for we hardly can suppose that so politic a prince as Henry would insist on a renunciation of the laws and customs of a people, whose attachment he had not conciliated, and whose imperfect submission he seemed to hold by a very precarious tenure.

Our author farther observes, that 'neither does good reason appear for supposing that Henry established any thing like a parliament in Ireland, or that he sent thither a form of holding parliaments after the manner of those of England. However favourable an opinion of the Irish modus may be entertained by justice Coke, the bishop of Meath, and Mr. Molleneux, it cannot be considered in any other light than that of a political imposition. The title of Conquestor Hibernae assigned to Henry in this paper, is to be found in no authentic deeds of that monarch, though many of them still remain. In the next place, a regular parliament had hardly yet appeared in England. The assemblies which are dignified by that name, were conventions only of peers and prelates. They seem to have possessed little legislative jurisdiction. They were convened chiefly for the purposes of advice, and few of their transactions appear to have been committed to writing. In the last place, the ecclesiastical convention of Lismore, though it intermeddled, as clerical conventions have often done, with civil business, yet cannot aspire to the appellation of a parliament. It was called for the purpose of reforming religion; most of its resolutions refer to that object; and the ratification of its edicts by royal authority, when several of these must have interfered with the jurisdiction of parliament, furnishes a strong presumption that no such court existed.'

When Henry III. shared the sovereignty of Ireland with his son Edward, the settlement was executed in the same manner with that which had been formerly made by Henry II. in favour of his son John. The prince was entitled to the revenue arising from the lands; but it was stipulated that this gift

should not imply an alienation of them from the crown. '*Ita tamen quod prædictæ terræ nunquam separantur a corona, sed integræ remaneant regibus Angliæ in perpetuum.*' It is even certain that the government of Edward was repeatedly controuled by the authority of the king.

The history of Ireland evinces that the nation was often refractory in the payment of subsidies to government. In the year 1348, an attempt was made, for the first time, to raise money by an application to parliament. This assembly resolved that two shillings should be paid to the crown for every carucate of land; and that two shillings in the pound should be advanced by every subject possessed of personal estate equivalent to six pounds. The clergy, however, in a body, refused obedience to the edict of parliament, and threatened with excommunication every incumbent and lay-tenant on church lands who should pay the tax. The parliament was thus compelled to yield to the opposition of the church. In the next instance, this legislative body proved less complaisant to the crown.

'The king (Edward III.) ordered an Irish parliament to be summoned, the state of the revenue to be laid before them, and demanded, that a sum of money should be granted equivalent not only to the maintenance of their own government, but to assist his majesty in carrying on his foreign wars, in the success of which all his dominions were concerned.

'The parliament assembled; but they refused to provide any subsidy; because they alledged their poverty was so urgent, that they were unable to pay it. Edward was provoked, and had recourse to an extraordinary exertion of his prerogative. He commanded two ecclesiastics to be elected by the bishop and clergy of each diocese, two laymen by the land-holders of each county, two burgesses by each borough, and that these representatives should repair to London, to deliberate with him and his council concerning the state of their country, and the granting of money to the crown. The unanimous answer of the lords and commons to this strange requisition still remains, and is conceived in a firm and manly strain. They declare the royal requisition contrary to law; that their compliance with the tenor of it was mere complaisance; and that, though they had elected representatives, had sent them to London, and would permit them to deliberate on the state of the nation; yet that they would allow them to undertake no discussion relative to money, and would advance no subsidy they should promise to pay. They protested farther, that their present election should not operate as a precedent against their rights and privileges, and the constitution of the national assembly of their country.

'This curious political transaction will admit no rational interpretation which does not involve the supposition, that Edward  
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was of opinion this assembly might be considered as a parliament, and that their resolutions might have the force of laws in Ireland. He assembled them at Westminster, remote from their constituents; and contiguous to his court; because he could there more easily manage their dispositions to second his views. He found, however, their powers so limited, and the spirit of their countrymen so refractory to his wishes, that we need not wonder he neither kept them long assembled, nor afterwards had recourse to a similar expedient.

The author produces the following instances from the Irish history, relative to the much agitated point of the constitutional authority of the British parliament over that of Ireland.

• In the sixth year of this reign, the prior of Lanthony, in Wales, brought an action for payment of an annuity in the Irish court of Common Pleas, against the prior of Mullengar in Ireland, in which the former had judgment in his favour. The judgment of the Common Pleas was affirmed by the Irish King's Bench; but the judgments of both courts were reversed by the parliament of Ireland. The prior of Lanthony brought the suit, by a writ of error, before the court of King's Bench in England. The English court, though in use to review the judgments of the courts of Ireland, refused to decide in a question which had undergone the discussion of the parliament of Ireland; and the Welsh prior, as his last resource, applied by petition, to the king and lords of England, for redress. It unfortunately does not appear what was the result of this application, as the parliament-roll terminates with the petition.

• In the 20th year of the same reign, is found the first mention of the doctrine, that the people of Ireland were not bound by English acts of parliament, till these were received and ratified by the authority of their own parliament. It occurred in the course of suit concerning an office in Ireland, before the English judges. The king had conferred the office to be held in person, or by deputy, and an Irish parliament had passed an act, that such offices could only be occupied in person. The office was therefore reputed to be vacant, and was conveyed, by a new patent, to another candidate. Both patentees claimed possession. The court entertained no doubt of their competency to try the cause; but they differed concerning the authority of the Irish act of parliament. Two judges thought the act a sufficient ground for setting aside the first patent. Other two were of a contrary opinion. The fifth judge founded his decision against the first patent upon the facts admitted by the parties, not on the validity of the act. As this doctrine was new and delicate, it will not excite wonder that the judges entertained different sentiments concerning it. It recurred about sixty years later in the English courts; and the judges, after long deliberation, were much embarrassed in fixing their opinions. One term, says Brooke, they reprobated the authority which pretended, by English statutes, to bind the people of Ireland. Next term,

they acceded to the opinion of the chief justice, who maintained that authority. The parliament of England had never passed acts which directly demanded any subsidy or internal tax from Ireland; and it appears that their forbearance in this respect, though they had disposed of the property of that country by several laws, chiefly influenced the minds of the judges.'

From the time of James the First, no doubt seems to have been entertained in England concerning the supreme jurisdiction of the English parliament, and the validity of its acts to bind Ireland. This opinion is confirmed by a variety of public transactions, and appears to have been entertained even by the people of Ireland; as may be inferred from

'The frequent and earnest petitions for redress of grievances presented to the English house of commons before the commencement of the civil wars; the anxious solicitations presented by the different parties in Ireland, to both houses, concerning the act of indemnity, passed after the Restoration; the thanks of the Irish parliament signified to king William, for the act of the English parliament, which abrogated the statutes of the Irish parliament of James II. concur to prove, either that the Irish acknowledged the jurisdiction of the English parliament, or that they thought it vain to oppose it. Even the declaration of the Irish house of commons, in the year 1641, relative to the queries which maintained the independence of Ireland, is scarcely an objection; because it was made in imitation of the encroachments of the English house of commons. It was suggested by the embarrassment of affairs in England, and was aimed against the authority of the king, rather than that of parliament. The same legislators, who wished to be held the assertors of the liberties of their country, hesitated not to acknowledge virtually the supremacy of the commons of England, by supplicating from that body a redress of their grievances.'

The author traces the political connexion between England and Ireland through a period of six hundred years; in performing which, his learning and industry equally merit our approbation. Though he has cautiously avoided drawing any conclusions, and has even withheld his opinion respecting the transactions he relates, the narrative exhibits such facts as cannot fail to influence the judgment of all who attentively peruse it.—In regard to composition, this performance is plain and unaffected; perspicuity and precision, both in sentiment and expression, appearing to be its chief characteristics.

An Appendix is added, containing a few public papers, which, while they are curious in themselves, confirm and illustrate various parts of the subject.



*Observations made during a Tour through Parts of England, Scotland, and Wales. In a Series of Letters. 4to. 10s. 6d. Becket.*

**S**INCE the accounts both of foreign countries and our own, under the different denominations of Travels, Tours, &c. have become so numerous, we have suspected that some of those productions were really fabricated in the closet, out of the materials of former writers; and we were not mistaken in our opinion. There is indeed no species of literary manufacture which is either more easily executed, or appears to be at present more vendible. It is therefore no wonder that we meet with so many publications of this kind.

The author of these Letters, sensible that the reader can receive gratification only from the description of interesting scenes, has calculated his route very properly for affording entertainment, and he discovers the same prudent management in fixing the several stages on his journey. We must also acknowledge that he endeavours every where to mix the *utile dulci*. In a deficiency of the works of art, he presents us with the beauties of nature; and when there is little subject for physical observations, he generally has recourse to those of a moral kind.

The first of these Letters is dated from London, and contains various remarks on the capital. In the second, the author gives a short description of Richmond, in Surry, and afterwards of Windsor and Eton; whence he proceeds to Bath, of which he also gives an account.

In the fourth Letter he sets out from Bath to the more distant parts of Somersetshire and Wiltshire.

After visiting the city of Wells, and some curious parts of the Mendip hills, our author arrives at Glastonbury, whence he proceeds to Somerton, and Ilchester, noted for being the birth-place of the famous friar Bacon. He directs his course thence to Wardour castle, a seat of lord Arundel's in Wiltshire, which he particularly describes. We are next conducted to Stourton park, the seat of Mr. Hoare, and afterwards by Longleat, the country residence of lord Weymouth, to the celebrated Stone-henge, and the city of Salisbury.

From Salisbury, says the author, we next set out to visit the remnants of Old Sarum. This place stands at the distance of one mile north of the city of Salisbury, and was formerly the see of a bishop, who had a castle and a cathedral here; but king Stephen quarrelling with bishop Roger, seized the castle, and put a garrison into it, which was the first occasion of the ruin of this ancient city; for not long after bishop Poor translated the episcopal seat to the valley below it, where the city of Salisbury now stands, and founded a cathedral there. Old Sarum is now reduced to the single remnant of a wall, and yet it sends two members to

parliament, who are elected by the proprietors of certain adjacent lands. This town is as ancient as the old Britons.

From Old Sarum we next proceeded to Wilton, the celebrated seat of the earl of Pembroke. Wilton is three miles distant from Salisbury. From whom I had derived my information, or how I came to be imposed upon, I know not; but I honestly confess, I had formed an idea of this place which scarcely can be exceeded by imagination. But how was I disappointed! a dirty road conducted us until we reached the fabric, substantial in appearance, but devoid of every principle of elegance or taste. We however alit, and after the purchase of a catalogue, and the entrance of our names in the porter's book, proceeded to the investigation of this wonderful collection of antiquities.

In the court before the grand front of the house stands a column of white Egyptian marble out of the Arundel collection; the shaft weighs betwixt sixty and seventy hundred weight, of one piece; the height is thirteen feet and an half, and the diameter twenty-two inches. Julius Cæsar had set it up before the temple of Venus Genitrix. The statue of Venus standing on its top, lord Arundel valued much, as being the only one cast from a model made at Rome, proportionable to some parts remaining of the broken antique.

In the front of the house, on each side of the entrance, are two statues of black marble, out of the ruins of the palace of Egypt, in which the viceroys of Persia lived many years after Cambyfes had conquered Egypt, and returned to Persia.

We are then presented with a catalogue of the valuable curiosities of this place, both in sculpture and painting.

From Wilton the narrative brings us to Longford, the seat of lord Radnor, and Broadland, belonging to lord Palmerston; whence the author makes an excursion to Southampton, and Winchester.

Returning to Bath, the traveller next proceeds to Bristol, on which he makes the following remarks:

When we consider Bristol as a place of trade and riches, we are greatly surprized to find the houses so meanly built, and the streets so narrow, dirty, and ill-paved. This is in some measure owing to an ill-judged parsimony; for the houses being mostly built in the same manner as those in London before the fire in 1666, with the upper stories projecting in the streets, are patched up and repaired from time to time.—But this is a very impolitic measure; for besides the expences attending the different repairs, and the low price of the rents, were a fire to happen in Bristol it would be attended with as dreadful consequences, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, as it was in London. Their method used in carrying goods through the city, although suited to the inconveniencies of the place, is the most clumsy that can be thought of; for instead of carts, which they alledge would break down the pavement over the cellars, they use sledges or sleds, which

which rubbing continually against the pavement renders it smooth, and in frosty weather slippery and dangerous. Another instance of their unaccountable prejudice is with respect to their Exchange, which the merchants will not transact their business in, although an act to build it was procured with much labour and expence, and although by their meeting in the open street they are constantly exposed to the inclemency of the weather. The whole expence of this building, erected at the public cost, and in fact of no benefit whatsoever, amounted to 50,000*l*. The public nuisance of their glass-houses is likewise another instance of their intolerable obstinacy: the city, from the continual smoke arising from them, being constantly darkened and in dirt, while the inhabitants are almost suffocated with noxious effluvia.

The author sets out from Bristol to Chepstow in Wales, and gives an account of the venerable abbey of Tintern, with the remains of a tessellated Roman pavement in high preservation, at Kerwent. He also describes the castle of Cardiff, the cathedral of Landaff, the Red Castle on the banks of the river Taff, and some other places.

Returning to the Hot Wells at Bristol, the author proceeds to Thornbury, the castle of which he describes. He afterwards gives an account of Beverton castle, the town of Tetbury, Cirencester, Cheltenham, Gloucester, &c.

In the fourteenth Letter he describes the city of Worcester, Whitley, the seat of lord Foley, the salt springs of Droitwich, Enville, a seat belonging to the earl of Stamford, and Hagley. In describing the latter of those places, he thus proceeds:

‘ Leaving the lower floors we next ascended to the bed-chambers, which we found elegantly arranged and furnished; but what was our astonishment, when all of a sudden, and in one of the humblest apartments of the range, our old conductress told us that here her good lord had died. Awe and reverence immediately seized hold of us. We contemplated in silence the place in which so good a man had winged his soul to immortality. The floor seemed hallowed as we trod. Speech became absorbed in thought; we softly withdrew, and felt what it is not possible to describe. After this, nothing more could possibly be seen. We therefore descended; but as we passed along, a certain something enticed us into an apartment incrusted with spar, and shells, and a variety of minerals and fossils. It seemed the secret cell of some minister of goodness. It stopped us for the moment, but onward we continued.

‘ Charmed thus with the house, we next had the park to ramble through and admire. But here indeed I must beg your indulgence. My pen is inadequate to the task. It fails the very life and faculty of description. Conceive, however, to yourself, a beautiful enamelled lawn, swelled in all the elegance of art and nature, for a distance of about four miles; while hill,  
dale,

dale, and grove, delightfully interspersed, render it as perfect an elysium as possibly can be conceived. The tender fawn here finds a brow for play, and the little lambkin skips about with joy. The church, which is the nearest object to the house, is totally concealed from it; a close embowering wood shades it entirely from the sight. In this, however, are the simple monuments of George lord Lyttelton himself, and of his beloved Lucy.

•The next subject of description is the Leasowes, formerly the residence of Mr. Shenstone; after which is an account of Birmingham, Derby, and lord Scarisdale's magnificent house in the neighbourhood of that town. We are afterwards presented with an account of Akover, and Ilam, both seats of private gentlemen; and also of Dove-Dale, Buxton-Wells, and the wonders of the Peak. Then follows Chatsworth, with Matlock, Chesterfield, Sheffield, and Doncaster.

The twentieth Letter describes Howard castle, the seat of the earl of Carlisle, Scarborough, Beverley, Hull, and Thron. The next delineates the ruins of Hemslay castle, Duncombe park, Thirsk, Ripon, Studley park, the seat of Mr. Aislaby, the ruins of Fountaine's abbey, and the town of Richmond.

The author afterwards proceeds to Barnard, and describes the bridge over the Tees, Raby castle, the city of Durham, Newcastle upon Tyne, and Alnwick castle.

In the twenty-third Letter we meet with a short account of Edinburgh, after which the author proceeds northward.

• Much as we had heard talk of Scots hospitality (says he), we yet could not have conceived that it ever could be carried to the extreme in which we found it to exist. Our first intent was merely to stay one night with our friend; instead of which, the neighbouring gentlemen leaguely themselves against us, kept us, *vi et armis*, amongst them for a considerable number of days: no sooner had we been with one, than another threw in his claim; and thus, loading us with a profusion of unmerited kindness, they baffled our firmest resolves, and compelled us to enjoy as much satisfaction and delight, as enlightened, well-bred, liberal society could possibly afford; and lest this should not be enough, four of the principal gentlemen insisted upon accompanying us through the highlands.

From this overstrained compliment, it is probable that the author is a North Briton.

The travellers visit the ancient castle of Glamis, where, according to tradition, Macbeth murdered Duncan. Thence they proceed to Dunkeld, 'a handsome village, says the author, in the very center of the Highlands.' If this be really the case, Dunkeld must have changed its situation since we visited that country; for we found it exactly at the south-east entrance to the Highlands, and full two days journey from the center.

The

The next object of attention is the earl of Breadalbane's seat at Taymouth, so much celebrated for its natural and artificial beauties by every visitant. Whether the following pastoral kind of episode be of the former or latter species, we shall leave our readers to determine.

From Taymouth we next continued along the northern side of the Loch, in our way passing by innumerable falls and cataracts which constantly feed it with supplies, and, thence crossing a river, arrived at Killin, at the western extremity of the lake. It being late in the evening when we left Taymouth, the night had far encroached upon us when we had got half way; the moon, however, shone with unusual resplendency; the air was perfectly calm and unruffled; the lake was transparent as a mirror; not a cloud obtruded on the sight: all wore, in short, the appearance of harmony and peace. In this manner, surrounded by the most charming and heart-felt objects of the creation, we serenely rode along; we suddenly, however, were aroused by a voice chanting forth a love-lorn song to the bright mistress of the night. Most of the company being in carriages, another gentleman and myself, with a whole troop of servants, stopped immediately before the place whence the sound proceeded: here we found a young damsel of about seventeen, two little boys reclining themselves on the grass beside her, and her harmless kine, charmed as it were with music, listening with earnestness behind. The sight was bewitching! innocence taught her not to be afraid; she continued her song, and seemed to be inspired the more she saw that we were plexed with her exertions: native goodness is wonderfully winning and attractive. We instantly acceded her in terms of kindness and affection; she answered in the same tone. The labour of the evening at an end (she told us) she and her brothers had strayed to this spot; her cows had followed her: weariness had prompted them to repose; gratitude, however, was due, and that gratitude she was paying to the Author of her being. But indeed, says she, I will not tell you all; neither will I continue with my song, unless you oblige me in my desire, and drink a little milk; the only refreshment I have to offer. The request was too courteous to be evaded; the heart-strings melted at the touch. We instantly complied, and emptied the vessel which she presented to us. Now then, says she, I will begin again; my cows too will thank you for your goodness; we are constant friends; they love their mistress; nor will they murmur at contributing to her happiness. Thus saying, she turned to the one that was nearest to her, and placing herself at her side, began an air that rivetted us to the spot: the night was, however stealing on apace; her parents expected her home; she therefore arose and bled us. Our warmest wishes of affection flew in fervency after her; she soon was out of sight.

After this hyperbolical description, we are presented with the version of an Erse poem, called Cathlavy, obtained, we are told, from the minister of Daulmally.

The

The places next visited are Inverary, Loch Lomond, Dunbarton, Glasgow, and Carron.

Returning by Edinburgh, the travellers proceed by Kelfo to Carlisle, Penrith, Keswick, Lancaster, Liverpool, and other places on the route to London.

From some palpable geographical errors which occur in these Letters, we suspect that the author never really visited all the places he mentions. He has, however, frequently given the more interesting parts of the narratives of former travellers, and, by a variety of circumstances, apparently fictitious, has, perhaps, rendered the work entertaining to readers of a particular class.

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*Modern Anecdote of the ancient Family of the Kinkervankotfsdarprakengotchderns: a Tale for Christmas 1779. Dedicated to the Hon. Horace Walpole, Esq. Small 8vo. 2 s. sewed. Davehill.*

WHO is the author of this little piece we know not, nor have we ever enquired concerning it: we will venture, however, from some internal marks, which are sufficient evidence to the *cognoscenti* in these matters, to assert, that it is the production of a female pen. Why it should be called both an *Anecdote* and a *Tale* in the title page does not appear: it might as well indeed have been styled a *Novel* or a *History*. Call it by what name you please, it is prettily written, and will afford as agreeable an hour's amusement as any thing of this kind which we have lately met with. The story has nothing in it very new or interesting, being nothing more than a short narrative of what happens almost every day: a young lady escapes from a whimsical old father, and a disagreeable admirer, and flies into the arms of a rapturous lover, who carries her off in triumph. Neither the moral nor instruction arising from this fable are much to be admired, as the conduct of Cecil, the heroine of the tale, is by no means *exemplary*, nor is it necessary that confined misses should be taught how to get away from their *papas* on such pressing occasions; nature seldom standing in need of precepts to assist her. We cannot at the same time but admire that *naiveté*, brilliancy of expression, and natural easy style, which distinguishes this writer from the common herd of novellists. The characters are painted in warm and lively colours, and the whole animated with that degree of spirit and fancy, that, in subjects the most trifling and insignificant, will always command the reader's attention.

The following description of Cecil may serve to justify our opinion of this performance.

' Venus should lend a feather from the wing of one of her favourite doves, to make a pen worthy of tracing Cecil's figure,

figure. Nay! the goddess herself *should* dictate a new language to express her countenance. But as that *should*, with many others, is impossible in humble mortal strain, I must describe her.

‘ Cecil was above the common size of women; but her limbs were so delicately turned, her proportions were so just, that whoever saw her refused to use the word *tall* in describing, or thinking of her; though in fact she was so.

‘ She had very blue eyes, which are very uncommon things; as most blue eyes, so called, are grey. But these were blue; just two shades deeper than the beauteous canopy of heaven. When she smiled, which was often, those eyes were lost under a pair of deep-fringed eyelids. Her eyebrows arched, were of the same colour as her eyelids, the darkest brown. Her forehead was low, and whiter than alabaster; ornamented with a quantity of hair that was almost fair, which covered her head in such profusion, that it hung below her knees. Her nose was small, though high, and rather prominent. Her cheeks might have been suspected of art in the colouring, if nature had not proved the transparency of it, by having diffused about half a dozen freckles under each eye. Ten little dimples played about a mouth, which a fine set of small teeth made more beautiful than was quite necessary; as her mouth was small, and seldom shewed them. Cecil, with this person, was but nineteen years old. She had been from the age of fourteen (when her mother died; and dying, desired she might be finished in her education in a convent at Paris) taught all the graces that art can improve talents with.

‘ She danced, she sung, she played upon the harp like a muse. And the natural gaiety of her heart made her support, without a sigh, for six months, the silent spectators of her amusements.

If the lady who wrote this (for a lady, as we said before, it must certainly be) has half the charms of her *Cecil*, who would not wish, like young *Franzel* for a tête à tête with her? or what critic, when she is known, will dare to find fault with her *Anecdote*?

In the next edition of her work we could wish her, however, to scratch out *rose-coloured thoughts*, p. 31; and to say the door of her anti-room, p. 42, *led*, instead of *gave*, into the gallery.

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*Poems, by a young Nobleman, of distinguished Abilities, lately deceased.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Kearsly.

IF this collection of verses is really the production of the late lord Lyttelton, (and the editor most solemnly assures us that it is so,) we can only say that his lordship was by no means

means so good a poet as we expected to have found him ; for however agreeable they might appear in manuscript to the partial eye of private friendship, the greater part of them is much too weak, trifling, and incorrect, to be submitted to public inspection. The whole consists of sixty pages, loosely printed, in order to swell it into a half-crown pamphlet ; and the bill of fare, if our readers have any inclination to an indifferent meal, is as follows :

1. The State of England, as it is to be in the Year 2199.— This poem, which is the longest in the collection, is likewise the worst, being an awkward attempt at humour and satire, in verse which is rather heavy and prosaic. Here, speaking of what St. Paul's was, my lord tells us that

‘ ——— not

The fam'd pantheon, or the sculptur'd dome  
Of great Semiramis, nor holier fane  
Of once inspir'd Judea, to the eye  
Of speculative wonder, *did* present  
A more admir'd, or admirable view !'

He then informs us that he wandered into a field overgrown with weeds, and that

‘ In this unwholesome fen, by the foul toad,  
And eyeless newt inhabited, *once* stood  
The *bank* and *treasury* of England, fill'd  
With shining heaps of beaten gold ; a sum  
That would have beggar'd all the petty states  
Of Europe to have rais'd, here half the wealth  
Of Mexico and Peru was pour'd, and hence  
Diffus'd in many a copious stream, was spread  
To distant towns, and cities, and enrich'd  
Industrious commerce through the polish'd land.'

A little after, the present miserable state of poor old England is thus described in verses almost as miserable as itself,

‘ ——— Then anarchy,

And wild misrule, tore the divided land  
By civil strife, from whose *atrocious* scars  
Men turn'd their sated eyes, and sought relief  
From absolute *potential* rule ; but soon  
The stern vindictive Spaniard, with the false  
Dissembling Frenchman, in full league combin'd,  
In triumph led the wretched slaves, and bow'd  
Their necks, accusom'd to the yoke of vile  
Opprobrious bondage ! then sorrowing drank  
Of misery's baleful cup, the bitter dregs.  
Crest-fallen Albion ! and from that dark hour  
Ceas'd to be deem'd a nation.'

To make us amends, however, for this melancholy picture, he tells us, that the time may come when Britons shall

‘ Once



' Once more in dust the combin'd banners lay,  
Of France and Spain ; who wish to rule the roaft,  
And boast of battles that were never lost.  
Join hearts and hands, O let it ne'er be said,  
That Britain *family compact* e'er did dread.  
The haughty Spaniard shall first feel the smart,  
Of Gallia's ill-laid projects and vile art.  
Next France, with inlaid conflicts 'sunder torn,  
Till times no more their ill success may mourn.'

2. To Lady Cat. A—ns—y, on her departure for Ireland.  
—This is the best flower in our author's poetical nosegay. The following lines are very pretty and poetical.

' Go then, thou rising sun, and happy those  
On whom thou shinest, on whom thy radiance glows ;  
Go then, thou rising sun, and in the west  
Be all thy glories, all thy powers confest !  
Thou com'st—the clouds disperse th'enlighten'd sky,  
Paints the clear sea with gold and azure dye.  
Thou com'st—a sudden fragrance fills the breeze,  
And vivid freshness blossoms o'er the trees.  
At thy approach fresh springing flow'rets blow,  
The lilies whiten, and the roses glow.  
At thy approach, each pearl of orient dew  
Is purpled over with a rainbow hue !'

Nor are these less striking, both with regard to sentiment and diction.

' When thou, thy mission done, with lib'ral hand  
Hast sown politeness through the savage land,  
Return again ! for thou wast never made  
To bloom and wither in th' unheeded shade  
Of Gothic darkness ; but to spread around  
Thy virgin sweetness in a richer ground.'

*Si sic omnia dixisset*, we should have been obliged to the editor, but then comes

3. To G. E. Ayl—gh, Esq.—These verses are no better than what G. E. A. Esq. the author of *Semiramis*, might have written to lord L——n, and therefore are not worth our reader's perusal.

4. An Ode, wrote under the Statue of Cupid, in Hagley Gardens.—This is such kind of poetry as appears to much greater advantage in a garden than it does in print.

5. An irregular Ode, wrote at Vicenza in Italy.—A great pomp of words, with very little sentiment.

6. An Invitation to Miss W——n.—These lines are soft and harmonious, and may claim some degree of merit in that species of poetry

' Where smooth description holds the place of sense.'

7. An

7. An Extempore Rhapsody.—Rhapsodies are not to be judged by the severe rules of criticism. We shall therefore say no more of this than that the conclusion of it is loose and indecent; and that, as has been observed by a much better writer than lord L.

‘Want of decency is want of sense.’

8. On Mr. — at Venice.—Some very bad satirical lines on a gentleman, who, my lord tells us,

‘In burning hell a demagogue shall sit,  
Who, when on earth, for hellish deeds most fit,  
T’ unite opposed vices ne’er did miss,  
Himself a wicked, vile antithesis.’

Surely, Mr. Editor, whoever you are, such stuff of your friend’s was not worth transmitting to posterity.

9. An Invitation to Mrs. A. D——. —This, particularly towards the conclusion of it, is nothing more than low, rank b——y, put into verse; and, for the reason hinted above, should by no means have been admitted into this, or any other collection. We hope, for the honour of the deceased lord, that it was not written by him.

10. Thyrsis and Myra.—This is still more indecent than the preceding.

11. In Nobilissimi Viri Comitissæ Savorgnani Laudes.—This is what the editor calls a Latin Epigram, of twelve lines. The verses are very poor, and would do little honour to a school-boy.

12. Presented, with a Basket of Flowers, to Earl Temple, in the Year 1765.—This was written fifteen years ago: the author’s youth, therefore, when it was written, may plead his excuse.

13. An Extempore by Lord Lyttelton, in Italy.—These are very poor verses.

14. Retirement.—These are some of the best verses in the collection, but, unfortunately for the supposed author, cannot properly be called his own; as the reader, on the first perusal of them, must perceive, that both the sentiment and diction are apparently borrowed from one of Hammond’s elegies.

15. and last. The Kiss of Love; or Love and Virtue, a Dialogue.—In the advertisement, announcing the third edition of these poems, great stress is laid on this—‘Poems by a young Nobleman, particularly, the Kiss of Love.’ The title, no doubt, is *attractive*; but we do not see any thing very extraordinary in the piece. Love here is made to say,

‘Who call’d the sun in beauty to his place,  
And gild the *glitt’ring* globes that *spangle* space.’  
And a little after

‘Though

' Though living lightnings from their orbs should fly,  
Love will gaze on, and gazing seek to die  
In his own *æther* —

What charms the author's female readers may find in the Kifs of Love we will not pretend to determine ; but to us, ' glitt'ring globes, spangling space, and love dying in his own æther,' appears to be arrant nonsense.

The bookseller informs us, in the title-page now before us, that these poems have already passed through three editions ; a circumstance which we are utterly at a loss to account for, as we cannot attribute so extraordinary a demand for them to any thing but curiosity, there not being, in our opinion, in the whole three-score pages, above fifty lines that are worth preserving.

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*A Selected Collection of Poems : with Notes, biographical and historical.*  
4 vols. small 8vo. 10s. sewed. Nichols.

**M**Ultum in parvo, or four volumes of pocket poetry, being a collection of pieces by various hands, closely packed together in a small print, for the use of young gentlemen and ladies who are fond of verses, and have very good eyes to read them. In this, as in every other miscellany, some things are preserved that were not worth preserving, and some reprinted that were not worth reprinting.

' Sprat, Carew, Sedley, and a hundred more,'  
what Pope calls,

' The mob of gentlemen who wrote with ease.'  
' There are, notwithstanding, amongst them the valuable remains of some of our best poets, Dryden, Parnell, and others, together with a variety of curious pieces by inferior bards, which, if not valuable from their intrinsic merit, convey many interesting and diverting anecdotes, that may serve to illustrate the history, and delineate the features, of past times.

The reader (as we are informed in the advertisement prefixed) will find in these volumes some of the earliest productions of Dryden ; some originals by sir William Temple ; an ode by Swift, which had long been considered as irrecoverable ; a considerable number of good poems by Steele, Parnell, Fenton, Broome, Yalden, Halifax, Dorset, Rochester, Prior, Pope, Bolingbroke, Philips, King, Smith, Watts, Pitt, Hughes, and Tickel, which are not to be found in any edition of their works.

This is, upon the whole, a useful and entertaining collection ; may afford very good post-chaise reading for travellers, and when at home, stand conveniently, being, we believe, pretty nearly of a size, on the same shelf with Dodsley's, Pearch's, and Johnson's English Poets.

This

The work is dedicated (as a proper compliment from one editor to another) to the rev. Dr. Percy, whom Mr. Nichols congratulates on the singular felicity of being lineally descended from the poet \* Cleiveland, whose works are to make part of two more volumes now in the press.—Whether this circumstance, which the literary world was not before acquainted with, can contribute to the fame or fortune of the *dean of Carlisle*, we cannot pretend to determine, as he is already sufficiently distinguished by his own productions, and the happiness of bearing the name, and being honoured by the patronage and protection, of a much more illustrious family.

*Letters to and from the Countess du Barry, the last Mistress of Lewis XV. of France. 8vo. 3s. Keasly.*

**I**N respect to the authenticity of these Letters, some circumstances render it doubtful. In the first place, it is improbable, that so many letters between madame du Barry and her male correspondents, on subjects of the most private nature, and while she was in a low station, could be preserved. In the next place, her talents for epistolary writing, when only fourteen years old, appears to be much superior to her years; not to mention that her genius for intrigue seems also uncommonly premature.

From a note on the first of these letters, we find that madame du Barry is the daughter of Gomart Vaubernier, an exciseman at Vaucouleurs; at which place she was born in 1744. After the death of her father, her mother, who was left without provision, came to Paris with her daughter, "in order to place herself in some family, as a cook, or housekeeper. Her first application was to monsieur Billard du Monceau, to whom she presented his god-daughter, young Maria Jane. He made the mother a present, and placed the daughter in the convent of St. Aure.

In 1759, we find madame du Barry had left the convent, and that she lived with her mother, who was then cook in a family in the country. In the same year, however, she is at

\* "Happy in a family connexion (says the editor), which, however remotely, entitles me to claim relationship with the poet Cleiveland (extracts from whose works will add merit to a future volume of this Collection); I am proud to have it known that the dean of Carlisle derives his descent from the same family, his father's mother having been niece to the bard above-mentioned: a family distinguished in private life for having produced a succession of most excellent clergymen, treading in the steps of their venerable ancestor, the rev. Thomas Cleiveland, father of the poet, who is upon record for his very worthy character and most exemplary life."

Paris,

Paris, whence she dates the following letter to the abbe de Bonnac.

‘ Sir,

‘ You made me many promises when you first began to love me. I was then your little angel, your sole delight, and you told me I could ask nothing in your power that you would refuse. I asked you for a silk gown, and you promised to give me one the first time you came here, and you have now been three times without once thinking about me. That is not well of you, sir; you have deceived me. Had I known the value of the favour I did you, you should not have come off so cheaply. You know I gave you the preference to M. de Marcieu, and I am sure he would have acted more honourably than you have done. If you do not give me my gown before next Sunday, I will tell the lady all you have done; I will cry very heartily, and then she will forgive me, and scold you. Adieu, sir, I am your most humble servant,

‘ Manon Vaubernier.’

After living a short time with an intriguing milliner, young Lançon (the name by which the heroine now went) and her mother, appear to have been in a very disagreeable situation. In 1761, she thus writes to Lamet, a hair-dresser residing in London.

‘ We are now, my unhappy friend, very far separated from each other, and both of us in a wretched situation! That you ruined yourself by living with me I know very well; and you know too that whilst we lived comfortably together, I refused to be kept by M. Monoye, who agreed to discard his fat mistress madame Laurens. I loved you, and I fancied we should do well; but it signifies nothing to fret and grieve; we must have a good heart. Do you endeavour to pick up some money in London, and I will strive to ruin some old fool or other, who shall take me into keeping; and the first of us who grows rich shall help the other. What say you to this? I must inform you that I live with my mother again, who has scarcely enough for herself; so to help out we go every evening to the Palais Royal, or the Thuilleries. Sometimes we get our 17 or 18 livres betwixt us; and sometimes less; however, we make a shift to live. Still I am in hopes we shall not be forced to do this long, but shall make some good acquaintance to bring us out of this way. Adieu, my dear Lamet, love me, and let me hear from you.’

The next letter that occurs to this correspondent, is dated in September 1768, at which time the countess du Barry had become mistress to the French king.

‘ I have, says she, just received your letter, my dear Lamet, it was next to a miracle that it found me after the alteration in my fortune. Luckily they sent it from madame La Garde’s to my mother, who conveyed it safely to me. You wish me to go

to you at London, where you doubt not of my making my fortune. But all I could ever hope to get by your English lords, would not equal what I at present enjoy, and which at one time I could never presume to expect. You little thought when we lived together, that you possessed a woman, who should one day have a title, and become the mistress of his most Christian majesty. I think I now see you rubbing your eyes, as doubting whether you are perfectly awake whilst you read this part. It is even so, my poor Lamet; I have married (for form-sake only) a great fat fellow, a count Du Barry, and I am at this present moment at Compeigne, where I exercise, with all its powers, the office of the favourite sultana. I have no need to enjoin you secrecy; you must be sensible of what consequence it is to yourself, as well as to me, not to blab. In order to secure your silence, and at the same time to make you some amends for the thousand crowns I have cost you, I send you inclosed a bill for a thousand pounds sterling. It is payable to the bearer, so that when you receive the money you will have no occasion to give your name. Pray write to me no more, 'till I shall point out in what way you are to send your letters. I expect you will use discretion, and you may rely on my friendship, of which I wish to give you proofs.'

In a letter dated the same year to the count du Barry, who acts as her counsellor in regard to her behaviour at court, she informs him, that she is much dissatisfied with the duke de Choiseul, who, she imagines, bears her a settled dislike. She adds, that the duchess de Grammont, his sister, is in a fury whenever she sees her, (the countess du Barry).

The following letter from the chancellor Maupeou, dated 1770, shews that the countess was then deeply engaged in court-intrigue.

‘ Madam, and dear Cousin,

‘ You have as great an influence over the affairs of government, as if you held the reins of state in your own hands; therefore, as our interest is the same, we ought to be strictly united, and do nothing but for the public good, in which, as good subjects, our advantage is concerned. We gave the day before yesterday, as you well observed, a little chastisement to the parliament, in recommending to that body to be circumspect for the future; but this haughty court, whose ambition aims even at the usurpation of the sovereign authority, is encouraged by the duke de Choiseul, its protector, to remonstrate against his majesty’s new law, which is in reality no more than an old regulation revived that has been registered above a century ago, and continued ever since in force. As the duke de Choiseul is our common enemy, and more yours than he is mine, since you are not safe so long as he continues in place, and as the moment is now come when we may rid ourselves of him for ever, let us both be firmly united.

‘ Let

\* Let your part be to insinuate continually to his majesty that Choiseul is secretly stirring up the parliament to rebel against him. I shall give his majesty the strongest proofs to confirm what you advance in a slight matter; and I shall shew him, by papers in my possession, that the dutchiefs de Grammont, under pretence of travelling for her pleasure, has endeavoured to stir up the other parliaments, and render them disobedient to his orders. The duke d'Aguillon, and the abbé Terray, will artfully give his majesty to understand, that Choiseul, in order to preserve his interest, uses indirect methods to bring on a war, though to all appearance he gives into his majesty's pacific views.

\* This is more than enough to work the ruin of this ambitious minister with our monarch, who entertains little regard for him at present, and keeps him in office only because he is become accustomed to him; and in a manner against his inclinations, as he fears him, and looks upon him to be a useful man. This is the line of conduct we are to pursue.

\* I am delighted with your late pleasantry on the subject of Choiseul. These kind of strokes have their good effect; but it requires a degree of wit equal to that you possess to invent such well-timed ones. I need not recommend secrecy to you in our proceedings, you are as much concerned in concealing them as I can be, I am with respect, &c. De Maupeou.

We shall also present our readers with the subsequent letter from M. de Voltaire, and the countess's answer.

\* Madam,

\* Monsieur de la Borde informed that you had ordered him to kiss me on both cheeks as from yourself.

\* Quoi ! deux baisers sur la fin de ma vie !  
Quel passeport vous daignez m'envoyer.  
Deux, c'en est trop ! Adorable Egerie ;  
Je serois mort de plaisir au premier.

\* Two kisses at the end of life !  
Such was divine Egeria's will ;  
What passport from this vale of strife !  
One were alone too much to kill.

\* He shewed me your picture : Pray, madam, be not angry ;  
I took the liberty of paying it back the two kisses.

\* Vous ne pouvez empêcher cet hommage,  
Foible tribut de quiconque a des yeuz.  
C'est aux mortels d'adorer vôtre image,  
L'original étoit fait pour les dieux.

\* This tribute, tho' poor, 'tis not yours to prevent  
From all who that portrait shall view ;  
For mortals to worship the copy was lent,  
But gods the original claim as their due.

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\* I have

' I have heard some part of M. de la Borde's Pandora. It seems to me worthy of your protection. The favours you confer on genius are the only means to increase the splendor of your name.

' Accept, madam, the unfeigned respects of a poor solitary old man, whose heart feels no sentiment more than those of gratitude.'

' To the Same.

' Nothing, sir, can be more polite, and agreeable than the letter which I have just received under your hand. I judged that the commission I gave M. de la Borde would have procured me the flattering acknowledgment you have sent me. I would have put it as a supplement to the apotheosis of king Petau. These two pieces joined together will justify you in the eyes of the public, and of posterity from the charge generally made against you, *that you are partial, and apt to contradict yourself.*

I am, &c.

The Countess du Barry.'

The collection consists of a hundred and forty-four letters, which, abstracting from every consideration respecting authenticity, are at least entertaining.

*Four Letters to the Earl of Carlisle, from William Eden, Esq. The third Edition. To which is added a Fifth Letter, on Population; on certain Revenue Laws and Regulations connected with the Interests of Commerce; and on Public Economy. 8vo. 4s. Cadell.*

THE account of Mr. Eden's Four Letters appeared in our Review for December last. Since that time this ingenious enquirer has added a Fifth Letter, on important national subjects, relative to which he has been enabled to acquire more extensive information.

Mr. Eden begins with considering the populousness of this country, if not with the view of ascertaining beyond a doubt, that the number of inhabitants has been for many years increasing, at least with the design of invalidating the arguments which have been adduced by Dr. Price for establishing the contrary proposition. This purpose, we think, Mr. Eden has clearly accomplished, so far as can be determined without actual enumerations of the people at different periods.

The author next makes additional remarks on the revenue and resources of the nation; and evinces from official authority, that, notwithstanding the war, the custom-house returns have as yet been very little affected; but he admits that our general export trade has suffered a great diminution. He thus concludes the prosecution of those interesting enquiries:

' I cannot



I cannot dismiss this subject, without adding a few remarks respecting the list of goods prohibited to be imported into, or exported from, Great Britain. It is enormous to a degree which cannot be conceived or credited by any person who has not examined it; and it increases from time to time, upon the representations of interested manufacturers, or the occasional complaints of a want of work. It has made this progress, notwithstanding that wise and experienced men, conversant in trade, customs, and the policy of nations, have long thought that prohibitions in general partake of the monopolizing spirit, and are prejudicial to the community.

Prohibitions on imports either drive persons, not otherwise ill disposed, into obtaining goods by such clandestine means as, when once invented and practised with success, are employed to the introduction of goods liable to customs; or they become a subject of general connivance: and accordingly, at this hour, many prohibited articles are bought every where, in the course of trade, and even by persons strictly conscientious, who do not know that they are concerned in an illegal transaction. In either case, the public treasury suffers; nor can any revenue arise from prohibitions, except by forfeiture in consequence of their violation.

With respect to trade, it is not found that prohibitions contribute, either to the improvement of the particular fabrics which they are meant to favour, or to the industry of a people; for the want of competition and comparison tends only to produce indolence, and to damp the exertions of ingenuity. On the contrary, it is thought, that the liberty of importing all articles now prohibited, subject to such a duty as might give a moderate, but decisive advantage to our manufactures, would encourage emulation, produce improvements, extend trade, interchange, and employment, and be also beneficial to the revenue. — Under this idea, a reasonable tax should in like manner be substituted in the place of exorbitant duties, which operate as prohibitions, and produce a very just retaliation in foreign states, highly mischievous to our commerce.

Prohibitions on exports are also believed, though from different and obvious reasonings, both to cramp trade, and to affect the revenue; and some are hardy enough to think, that it would be expedient even to repeal the prohibition of exporting wool, and to substitute a considerable duty in the place of it — The average price of wool, say they, is much lower at present than it was in the time of Edward III. because it is now confined to the market of Great Britain; whereas then the market of the world was open to it; and the duty upon its exportation was the most important branch of the custom. The lowness of the price, according to these reasoners, tends to debase the value of the commodity, and may thus, in its consequences, rather hurt the manufacture than promote it; in the mean time the interest of the grower is evidently sacrificed to that of the manufacturer,

and a real disadvantage is laid upon the one for the supposed benefit of the other.'

Mr. Eden afterwards makes some observations tending to ascertain the effects of bounties upon industry and commerce; but concerning the different opinions which have been entertained on this subject, he declines drawing any positive conclusion.

The author having stated in the preceding Letters, that the public revenue and the interests of commerce might be mutually promoted, by consolidating the branches of the customs, by reforming the books of rates, and by improvements in the present mode of collecting, he enters, in the present Letter, upon a farther explanation of the subject, which he elucidates by pertinent observations. Towards the conclusion of the Letter, the author presents us with the following retrospect of his enquiries:

'We are not to put a mask over our situation; we are to look it fairly in the face; strong truths prove offensive only to weak eyes. The object of good citizens, in a moment like the present, should be not to sooth the nation into the security of an infant, but to encourage that manly confidence, which has thus far supported the national strength and exertions. We are engaged in a war which we did not provoke: the path which we have to pursue, is indeed a path of toil and embarrassments, but it is direct and unavoidable. We may wish for peace; but, in order to force the war to a speedy and just conclusion, great national expences are necessary. Under these circumstances, I have had the satisfaction to convince myself at least, that we possess ample resources, and without any pressure, either on the occupations of the industrious, or on the maintenance of the lower classes in general. But if any man will point out new objects of resource, which have not occurred to me, he will not only prove (what I will cheerfully admit), that he is better informed, but will add to the satisfaction which I feel; and I shall honour him for making the best use of superior talents.

'I have gone into a detail of many speculative reforms, in the hope of shewing, that an improved collection of subsisting taxes, and a better arrangement of commercial duties, would alone furnish a considerable and permanent supply. — I have mentioned too, that the delay in settling public accounts has always been very great, and that the manner, in which some of considerable magnitude are usually managed, has never been satisfactory; but I have not presumed to say more upon what is the most obvious duty of the representative body. I have farther stated "the great assistance derivable from the appropriations of public claims, possessions, and contingencies:" and so far as this expression may include the views of some respectable men towards the sale of such demesnes, and other royal rights, as afford little benefit to revenue, and no circumstance of splendour or convenience

wisdom to the crown ; it seems right to add, that, though such a measure would give little immediate aid to the public; it would prove a solid benefit to the general cultivation and future produce of these kingdoms.

‘ Lastly, I have said, “ that oeconomy in the conduct of war is often a most short-sighted virtue :” when Cicero exclaimed, “ *O Dii immortales ! non intelligunt homines quam magnum vestigal sit parsimonia ;*” he was summing up his sixth paradox to prove, that for an individual, poverty is preferable to riches ; that virtue is a more solid possession than houses and land ; and that the fewer desires a man feels, the fewer gratifications he will want. But if, instead of stoical morality, he had been engaged in a dissertation on the practical policy of a great kingdom involved in a struggle with surrounding empires, he would have furnished me with better words, than I used, to express, that “ parsimony in war, when it tends to a defalcation of useful services, becomes a wretched management, for which the nation in the event pays twenty-fold.” — I neither meant however, nor do I now mean, to differ from those, who look for resources in the prosecution of any measures, which, without clogging the executive power, may enforce a strict and efficient management of the public money.—I think such measures highly laudable ; I know them to be difficult ; yet I believe them not to be impracticable.’

In this Letter, as well as in all the former, Mr. Eden plainly appears to be actuated by the most candid motives, and to have prosecuted his researches with the laudable intention of contributing to the public good. Where authenticated facts afford sufficient ground for argument, his conclusions are equally just and decisive ; and, like an impartial inquirer after truth, he erects no opinion upon conjecture, though strongly supported by probability.

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*Letters to the Rev. Tho. Randolph, D. D. President of C. C. C. and Lady Margaret's Professor of Divinity, in the University of Oxford. Containing a Defence of Remarks on the Layman's Scriptural Confutation. By A. Temple, M. A. With an Appendix. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Cadell.*

THERE is no question in theology, which has occasioned more disputes and controversial publications, than the doctrine of the Trinity ; yet the point in debate is argued with as much warmth and prolixity, as when the controversy commenced. The Trinity is a subject which, in almost every view, is infinitely beyond the sphere of the human understanding ; a subject which men ought to examine with the profoundest reverence and humility, yet they have generally treated it with the utmost confidence, and the most intemperate zeal. The

Athanasians, upon a presumption that their adversaries are heretics, and they themselves the orthodox believers, have peremptorily declared, that except a man believe their system of faith, 'he cannot be saved.' The moderns, on this side of the question, have collected a much greater number of texts in favour of their opinion, than their predecessors attempted to produce. For example, they have insisted on a passage in St. Paul's first Epistle to Timothy, iii. 16. in which, according to some copies of the New Testament, it is said, 'God was manifest in the flesh.' They have alledged the testimony of the Three in Heaven, &c. Yet in all the controversy about the Trinity, which was maintained with the utmost violence against Arius, we do not find that any of his opposers made the least use of these passages. The most judicious writers on the subject have therefore supposed, that the one is a corruption of the text, and the other an interpolation.

Mr. Jones, Mr. Burgh, and other late advocates for the doctrine of Athanasius, have industriously ransacked, the Old and New Testament, in search of every text, allusion, and distant hint, which, with the least shadow of probability, may be of service to their cause. Yet they have by no means strengthened their hypothesis in proportion to the texts they have quoted. They are like generals, who, not contented with a few tolerable soldiers, have imprudently led a number of unarmed recruits into the field of battle, and given the enemy an easy conquest over a poor, defenceless multitude.

In this work the learned reader will find many judicious criticisms and excellent observations on the Trinitarian controversy, with an ample refutation of the fallacious arguments of Dr. Randolph; though, from the nature of the subject, there are not many remarks which have not been made by preceding writers. We subjoin the following short extract, not as containing any very extraordinary discovery, but as a new and probable conjecture.

'In the whole New Testament there is no command to pray to Jesus Christ. Jesus Christ himself and his apostles uniformly direct all prayer to be addressed to God only. There is, I am persuaded, no passage in the whole book, that records an instance of proper prayer addressed otherwise than to the person of the Father, except Acts vii. 59. where Stephen at his martyrdom is represented as using these words, *Lord Jesus receive my spirit*. This, it must be owned, is a direct invocation of the *Lord Jesus* by prayer, and is, in my opinion, one of the greatest difficulties in the sacred writings. That Stephen at so solemn a moment, and filled, as he was, with the Holy Spirit, should have prayed to an improper object, is to me inconceivable. To say that Jesus Christ was present in vision to Stephen, though, if the

the fact could be proved, it might be allowed great weight, seems to be cutting, not untying the knot. For considering the time, that must necessarily elapse, it is as difficult to conceive that the vision continued till the moment of his martyrdom, as to suppose that he would end his life in the violation of his Master's often repeated command.

The following conjecture, if it should be found sufficiently probable, would remove the whole difficulty, and with all submission to better judgments, I propose it to the consideration of candid and learned Christians.

The reading of our printed copies, is *Kypis Inou, Lord Jesus*; but eight MSS. one of great antiquity (See *Westflin in Loc.*) read *Kypis Inou Xpots, Lord Jesus Christ*. It is certain St. Luke did not originally write both; nor could those, whose books had *Kypis Inou*, have added the word *Xpots* by way of explanation. *Kypis Inou* effectually ascertains the person. Whence then arose the various reading? Nothing will more naturally account for it, than to suppose *Kypis* (*Lord*) simply, to have been the genuine reading; which being understood by different owners of MSS. to mean the *Lord Jesus*, some by way of interpretation, would write on the margin the word *Inou*, others *Inou Xpots*. Subsequent transcribers would take some the one, some the other expression, as they met with it in the respective MSS. from which they copied, into the body of the text, and thus the original reading would be gradually lost. Take away this single word, and all appearance of inconsistency is removed from a text, which otherwise seems not easily reconcileable with the rest of Scripture; the prayer will no longer be addressed to Jesus Christ, but to the God and Father of Jesus Christ, according to the prescription of Jesus Christ himself, *When ye pray, say our Father*.

This conjecture may expose me to the chastisement of Dr. R. I propose it only to the consideration of cool and dispassionate men, who will understand it, as the real truth is, to be proposed with all diffidence, and from the best of motives, a desire to turn the attention of abler critics to this, I think, very difficult text. Conjectural readings, adopted merely by way of accommodating an hypothesis, are never allowable. A worse reason cannot be imagined. Such readings, however, may sometimes be probable in the highest degree; and if no other instance of prayer, properly so called, indisputably addressed to Jesus Christ, can be pointed out in Scripture; if all prayer is commanded to be addressed to God only, the evidence here stated for the conjecture in question, may possibly be great enough, if not to justify the proposer, yet at least to exempt him from the severity of censure.

In the Appendix, the author clearly refutes this proposition maintained by Dr. Burgh, 'That there was not a single Unitarian among the fathers of the three first centuries;' proving, by many passages in their writings, that they have asserted the inferiority of the Son to his Father in the most explicit terms.

*Biographia*

*Biographia Evangelica; or, an Historical Account of the Lives and Deaths of the most eminent and evangelical Authors or Preachers, both British and Foreign, in the several Denominations of Protestants, from the beginning of the Reformation, to the present Time. By the Rev. Erasmus Middleton. Vol. I. 8vo. 6s. sewed. Hogg.*

**T**HIS work is compiled upon a presumption, that ‘a review of the lives and principles of the most eminent persons in the protestant churches, from the beginning of the Reformation to the present day, may be a providential means of assisting, at least, in giving a check to the general inundation of infidelity and false opinions,’ which is supposed to overwhelm this nation.

With this view the compiler begins with the life of John Wickliffe, the first champion of that cause, which afterwards received the name of protestantism. From Wickliffe, who was born in 1324, he proceeds to John Hufs, Jerom of Prague, Patrick Hamilton, &c. giving us, in all, the lives of forty-four eminent reformers.

The author, however, does not pursue a chronological order in the arrangement of his lives; nor yet an alphabetical one. This, we apprehend, is a fault; for when we read the life of Patrick Hamilton, and are told, that at the age of twenty-three he travelled into Germany, and was instructed in the doctrines of the gospel by Luther and Melancthon, it is evident, that Luther and Melancthon were his predecessors, and consequently ought to have been placed before him in this work; whereas they are introduced at a considerable distance in the subsequent part of the volume.

The author has published this work with a laudable design, to prevent the progress of false opinions. He mentions these venerable reformers in general as ‘evangelical preachers;’ and, speaking of Patrick Hamilton, the Scotch reformer, he says, his treatise, entitled Patrick’s Places, ‘contains the gospel with as much clearness (and would to God, it might might not be said, with more clearness) as among the professors of a later day.’

This is more than can be said of any author in this volume. The reformers were men of learning and singular piety; and their zeal in exploding the corruptions of popery was truly noble and praise-worthy: but it is absurd to produce their writings as the standards of orthodoxy, and evangelical truth. They were just emerging out of the darkness of popery; literature was then only beginning to dawn upon Europe; their minds were far from being fully illuminated; and their notions

of

of Christianity were crude and imperfect. They maintained the doctrines of predestination, original sin, imputed righteousness, and many other notions, which are now found to have no existence in the New Testament.

We must therefore consider this work as more particularly, adapted to the taste of those who are of the Calvinistic persuasion.

The compiler would have given his learned readers more satisfaction, if he had constantly subjoined the authorities upon which he founds any remarkable assertion.

This performance is adorned with the heads of some of the principal reformers, elegantly engraved by Mr. Trotter.

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Essai sur divers Sujets de Politique & de Jurisprudence, 3vo.*

**E**IGHT, short valuable Essays: I. On the Right of the English to cut Logwood in the Bay of Honduras; a right explicitly granted them without any limitation, by the 17th article of the late Parisian peace, and here asserted. II. Instances of a Peace concluded without any formal Treaty.—As the essence of a peace depends on a mutual promise of belligerent powers to desist from farther hostilities, and to live for the future on an amicable footing with one another; such an agreement may in certain cases prove sufficient without the intervention of either negotiation or a formal instrument and treaty of peace. An instance of this we meet with in the History of Sweden, after the death of Charles XII. when both Sweden, and Frederick Augustus the king of Poland, laid down their arms; the latter was acknowledged the lawful king; and both courts lived in perfect harmony, without having settled any treaty of peace between themselves. Peace was not formally declared till nine years after; and even then merely by a formal letter sent by the two courts to each another. III. Are Allies comprised in a Truce?—If they are mere auxiliary troops incorporated in the chief army, they certainly are comprised in the armistice; but if the allies too are to be considered as one of the belligerent powers, waging war for their own interests, and on their own account, it will be expedient to include them in the truce; and to leave it to their own option, whether they will accept of it or continue the war singly. IV. A Truce infers no Obligation to evacuate occupied Places. V. On the Duties of an Officer, placed by one Ally, in the Army of another, for the Purpose of watching for the Interest of his own Court.—Here the instructions and conduct of the marquis de Montalembert, sent by France during the last war to the Swedish and Russian armies, are proposed as patterns. VI. On the Enquête par Turbes, or, Ancient Mode in France, of investigating Laws founded on provincial or local Customs.—Whenever such a law was referred to by one party and disputed by the other, the superior court appointed a commissioner from among its own members, who was to repair to the district where such a law was said to exist; and where he was to summon all the lawyers, attornies, &c. of the district curiam. When each of these curiam, or turbes, had deliberated on the articles laid before them, she delivered her sentiment to the commissioner,

soner, who according to the majority of the votes of the *coriis* either affirmed or rejected the disputed law of custom. This Enquête par Turbes proving both exceedingly expensive, and uncertain in its result, was at last prohibited by Lewis XIV. under the penalty of nullity. VII. How are Servants of an Ambassador to be examined when called upon by contending Parties to give their Evidence?—As they are subject to no other jurisdiction than that of their masters, they must be examined by way of requisition. VIII. On the Rights of the illustrious House of Brunswic-Lüneburg to the Duchy of Bavaria.—These rights are here proved to be by no means entirely extinct, but at most only suspended, till the extinction of the Palatine family. Bavaria was granted as a fief to Welf of Esté for him and his posterity. The sentence of outlawry pronounced against Henry the Lion was unjust, unlawful, and void; his son, emperor Otto IV. renounced Bavaria, only in favour of the house of Wittelsbach; and besides, this renunciation cannot prejudice the present family of Brunswic-Lüneburgh, who are no descendants of his. The house of Brunswic has therefore a right to oppose every alienation or reversionary grant of the duchy of Bavaria.

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*De la Religion, par un Homme du Monde; où l'on examine les differens Systèmes des Sages de notre Siècle, & l'on démontre la raison des Principes du Christianisme, avec les Maximes fondamentales de la tranquillité des Etats. 4 Vols. 8vo. Paris.*

THE cause of religion has very often been hurt by the odious conduct and weapons of unworthy champions, who too frequently and too indiscriminately impute infidelity to corruptness of heart and character, though it often proceeds merely from weakness, indolence, or errors of intellects. This very blind zeal has often been styled a holy zeal and anger; though it was in fact mere bad humour, passion, and pride; and could by no means be considered as consistent with that charity, so strongly enforced by the Gospel.

The judicious and very respectable author of the present valuable *Defence of Religion*, has adopted a different and better plan. 'Que ne trouvera,' says he, "dans mon livre, ni critique amère des sentimens contraires aux miens, ni ces reproches de mauvaise foi, de prestiges & d'illusions des passions criminelles, trop multipliés contre les incrédules. Je ne chercherai point dans le coeur de ceux qui pensent différemment de moi, la source des erreurs de leur esprit.'

He accordingly addresses his antagonists with candour, meekness, and politeness; grants them whatever he can; but insensibly leads them from truth to truth, and confutes their errors by opposing them to one another. His work is divided into four parts, comprised in four volumes. The first part contains An Inquiry into the Sources and Limits of our Knowledge; the Proofs of human Free-will, and a refutation of the System of Fatalism. The second treats of God, and some of his Attributes: of Physical and Moral Evil. The third part begins with the second volume, and treats of seemingly inconsistent Attributes of God, and of the Nature and Duration of our Soul. The fourth part begins with the Enquiry whether it be reasonable to think that God has communicated himself to Man by a special Revelation; proceeds then to a summary discussion of the proofs of the divine original of Christianity; and concludes with an examen of the doctrine, worship and system of morality which the pretexts as inspired by God.

FIFTY.



*Observationum Subsequarum Specimen. 300. Halle.*

**FIFTY-FOUR** short and valuable Essays, by M. de Steck, on the following various subjects: I. De Foemina. Obside.—The high esteem of the ancient Germans for the fair sex induced Augustus to demand female hostages, in preference to male ones, as securities for the execution of treaties of peace. II. Is a Vassal, who is no Subject, in duty bound to serve as hostage for his Lord?—Affirmed; from the *Maxims* of the Feuda Plegii of the middle Ages. III. On Laws prohibiting or restraining the Culture of Wine.—Our author thinks it more advisable to encourage agriculture by premiums and a free exportation, or to discourage the culture of wine rather by heavier taxes than by positive prohibitory laws. IV. On the Insurrection and War of the Peasants.—The famous war of the peasants in Germany, was not kindled by the religious fermentation in the minds of the people at the time of Dr. Luther's reformation, but by the rigours and cruelties of the lords. V. Some useful Remarks concerning Ground Rents. VI. On Sovereign Power conferred for a certain limited Time only.—Such was the power of the Roman dictators; the power conferred in 1576, by the Dutch, on the prince of Orange; and in 1586 on the earl of Leicester. VII. De Dictatore perpetuo;—Such was Oliver Cromwell, though under the name of a Protector. VIII. Concerning the Guaranty of the Consorts of a Peace, and its Foundation in the very Nature of a Peace in which several Parties are included. IX. Of a Religion hurtful to Agriculture.—Manes pretended that agriculture was more sinful than even usury. Agriculture may also be hurt by an excessive number of holidays. X. On the Origin of Consuls in the trading Towns and Cities in Asia Minor, during the Crusades. XI. On the Epigones in Alexander's Army, and a similar Institution by the famous Gustavus Adolphus king of Sweden. XII. On the Defection of single Provinces, Colonies, and Cities; with Instances from Modern History. XIII. Concerning Amnesties, and their Foundation in the very Nature of a Peace. XIV. Has any Nation a Right to assist and support the rebellious subjects of another State?—M. de Steck will not venture to decide the question, from general principles; but, that the practice is not inconsistent with the practical law of European nations, appears from their history. The independency of the Dutch was favoured and supported both by England and France; and that of the Crimea, by Catherine II. To this article the treaty between France and the United Colonies of North America has been prefixed. XV. De Abolitione Dictaturæ. XVI. De Derelictione Regni. XVII. On the reassumption of a resigned Crown or Sovereignty.—Our author thinks the successor has a right to oppose such an attempt, and approves the conduct of a late king of Sardinia towards his father Victor Amadeus. XVIII. On the *L. I. D. de Legatis*: an Account of the Legationes liberae among the Romans, and of the Legislation concerning them. XIX. De Statuta Militari, ad L. III. C. Theod. de Tironibus.—The military standard among the Romans was six feet, and under the reigns of the Valentinians, five feet seven inches. XX. That an hereditary Prince given as an Hostage, who, during that time succeeds to the Throne, must be released, unless at that very Time the Conditions of the Peace should happen to be violated. XXI. Can a captive King resign his Crown?—If the terms of peace, proposed to him are disgraceful and

too hurtful to the interests of his kingdom, he is in justice and duty bound to resign the crown. XXII. An Instance of Hostages given for the due Performance of particular Articles of Peace, (at Aix la Chapelle.) XXIII. to XXVII. Observations from the History of the Diocese of Riga. XXVIII. Of the former Connections of Wallachia and Moldavia with Poland:—These connexions were so strict and close that the princes of Wallachia and Moldavia could not even naturalise a foreigner, but by permission from the king of Poland. XXIX. Concerning the Restoration of the English Language at the English Court, and in the Courts of Law (by Edward III.) XXX. Of Pope Hadrian IV's Permission granted in 1154, to the King of England for conquering Ireland. XXXI. On the feudal Connexion of Scotland with England, entirely abolished by Edward III. XXXII. The Title and Style of Potentissimus was not given to the Kings of Poland before 1659, by the emperor Leopold. XXXIII. Of Lewis of Bohemia Arrogation (a kind of adoption) by the Emperor Maximilian I. XXXIV. That there are but few genuine Records extant with leaden Imperial Bulls. XXXV. To Frederick II's Time the Bishops of Vienna were Arch-chancellors of Burgundy.—At what precise time this dignity has been transferred to the archbishops and electors of Triers or Treves, is not certainly known; though it probably happened under Rudolph I. XXXVI. De Rationario Imperii:—as Suetonius calls the tables of the population, the state of trade and commerce, of agriculture, of military forces, of finances, &c. to be used by sovereigns. XXXVII. De Augurio Politico.—The revolution in the Swedish constitution had been accurately foretold by abbé Raynal in his History of the European Settlements, &c. The duke of Choiseul is also said to have exactly foretold, during the negotiations of the Parisian peace, the conduct of the colonies in North America. XXXVIII. On the Difference in the Characters and Inclinations of several Nations. XXXIX. De tacitis Induciis.—A true armistice requires an explicit and positive agreement concerning the suspension of hostilities during a certain limited time. XL. De Lege Atilia, XLI. De Lege Porcia. XLII. De Servis non Ordinandis. XLIII. Concerning the Sense of the Word *asporis* in the Greek Codes of Law. XLIV. An Instance of an Arbiter appointed in a Dispute between an Emperor and a State of the Empire. XLV. On the Marggrave's Title and Dignity of the Family of Baden.—They were originally assumed by Hermann II. duke Bertold of Zaringen's son, who married an heiress of the family of the Dynasts, or lords of Baden. XLVI. Instances from the Middle Ages, of Town-Charters granted by Emperors. XLVII. Proof of the Archbishop's of Mentz being the next Prelate after the Pope, in the whole Roman Catholic Church. XLVIII. On the Nobility or Minority of the Carolingian Kings. XLIX. Instances of Outlawry pronounced by a particular Court of Reichsmannen. L. A Confirmation of the Position that an Alienation of a Fief of the Empire, without the Emperor's Consent, causes no Deprivation of it. LI. A Proof that the imperial Fiefs have ever been allowed to be divided, without the Emperor's consent. LII. Instances of Dowry Fiefs. LIII. An Explanation of L. 15. D. de Jurisdictione. LIV. A Commentary on the Tit. Quod quique juris, &c.

## FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

*Lettre à M. Hirzel, Conseiller d'Etat à Zurich, sur le Bled & le Pain, par M. Tiffot. D. M. 8vo. (Lausanne.)*

**M**R. Linguet's late paradox of agriculture's being hurtful to a state, and bread to bodily health, is here accurately examined and confuted.

*Memoire sur la Formation du Salpêtre & sur les Moyens d'augmenter en France la Production de ce Sel. Par M. Cornette. 8vo. Paris.*

An useful treatise, abounding with original observations and experiments.

*E. C. Hauber's Beschreibung der Stadt Kopenhagen und der Koeniglichen Landschlösser; or, a Description of the City of Copenhagen, and of the Royal Villas. The second Edition. 8vo. Copenhagen. (German.)*

According to this description, Copenhagen contained, in 1777; 4000 houses, and 90,000 inhabitants, exclusive of those of the citadel, and of the seamen's barracks; 20 large palaces of noblemen; 4 royal castles and palaces; 2 theatres; 2 nunneries; 6 houses for the education of children; 4 infirmaries; 30 charity-schools, in which 2000 children are educated gratis; and 10 hospitals; in all which charitable foundations 3500 persons are provided for. Besides these, about 4000 indigent persons are supported; and the annual expence of all the public provisions for the poor, amounts to more than 100,000 dollars, Danish currency.

The livery of Copenhagen consists of 9000 men, and is still well trained to military exercises. The garrison consists of 6600 land and 4940 marine forces; to which may be added 1000 artificers and workmen in the royal dock-yard.

Here we also find an account of the public buildings; the city government; of literary societies; of those of artists; of the university; the post-offices; of seven public libraries; of the most remarkable private libraries; of the collections of natural curiosities; of the botanical gardens; the galleries of pictures; those of models; the several departments of public administration; the courts of law; the royal court; the ecclesiastical constitution; the principal churches; the most remarkable rites and ceremonies; the police; the mint-office; and finally, of weights, measures, and the three different roads to Germany.

The streets of Copenhagen have been lighted more than 150 years past; and the regulations in case of fire, are, upon the whole, perhaps, the best that are any where to be met with.

The most magnificent of the ten royal villas, is Hirschholm. But of all these ten villas, two only are at present inhabited in summer, viz. Friedensburgh, by the king and his court; and Friedricksburgh, by the princess Charlotte-Amelia.

*Oryzographia Carniolica, oder Physikalische Erdbeschreibung des Herzogthums Krain, Istrien, und zum Theil der benachbarten Länder; or, a Physical Geography of the Duchy of Krain, of Istria, and of Part of the adjacent Countries. With a Map and Cuts. Part I. 4to. Leipzig. (German.)*

The anonymous author appears to have examined and described these countries with great attention, judgment, and freedom. This  
first

first part contains a description of the whole chain of Alps in Krain, and the whole extent of the country, and is illustrated and adorned with a large map, exhibiting the chain of the mountains, with their various branches, and the principal minerals, baths, lakes, &c. a subterraneous cavern, a fall of a river, &c. The second part will contain a description of the interior parts of the country, with a drawing of the famous lake of Zirknitz, &c.

*Pharmacia rationalis Eruditorum examini subiecta a Societate quadam Medica. Fasciculus Primus Litteram A complexus. Fasciculus Secundus, Litteras B, C, & D, complexus. Cassel.*

A judicious alphabetical collection of select remedies, with an accurate account of the method of preparing them, and of their respective virtues and uses.

*Francisci Barettæ, M. & Philos. D. Dissertatio de Miliaris Natura, Differentiis, & Curatione. 8vo. Milan.*

The chief remedy proposed by Dr. Barettæ, is Hoffmann's liquor anodynus.

*Institutum Facultatis Theologicae Vindobonensis, curante Fran. Steph. Rautenstrauch, O. S. B.—Regni Bohemæ Prælati insulato, Facult. Theol. c. r. Præsides & Directores. 8vo. Vienna.*

Exhibiting striking proofs of judgment and liberality of sentiment. The theological faculty at Vienna, consists of a president, appointed by government, a dean, and eight professors in ordinary; of whom the first is to read lectures on ecclesiastical history; the second, on the hermeneutic, and the Greek language of the New Testament; the third, on the hermeneutic, and Hebrew language of the Old Testament; the fourth, on patrology, and the literary history of divinity; the fifth and sixth, on dogmatics; the seventh, on moral divinity; and the eighth, on pastoral theology. The instructions given to all these professors amount to a total reformation of the method hitherto pursued in Catholic universities; and deserve the warmest approbation.

*Oratio quam Anno 1777. cum regia Scientiarum Universitas Budæ collocaretur, adornavit Paulus Mako de K. G. Abb. S. Margarethæ de Bela. 8vo. Vienna.*

An animated speech on the translation of the Hungarian university of Tyrnaw to Ofen, and on the measures taken for the advantage and improvement of sciences and learning in Hungary.

*Reflexions d'un Citoyen Catholique sur les Loix de France relatives aux Protestants. 8vo.*

A severe review of the laws enacted by Lewis XIV. against Protestants in France; and of their injustice, inexpediency, and absurdity.

*Lettres de deux Curés des Cevennes, sur la Validité des Mariages des Protestants, & sur leur Existence légale en France. 2 vols. 8vo.*

In the first volume, one of these correspondents produces all the objections of the Roman Catholic church against religious toleration; and the other confutes these objections, and proves the necessity of toleration, by arguments from reason, scripture, the fathers of the church, popes, councils, and eminent catholic writers.

The second volume contains a Commentary on the Edict of Nantes, and proves that its repeal has been surreptitiously obtained of Lewis XIV. and that there is no law extant in France against the marriages of Protestants.

MONTHLY

# MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## POLITICAL.

*Thoughts on the Treaty now agitating between Government and the East India Company.* By Archibald Mitchell. 4to. 1s. 6d.  
J. Donaldson.

**M**R. Mitchell, the author of this pamphlet, was late major of engineers at Fort St. George, and seems to be particularly well acquainted with the affairs of the East Indies. His opinion, therefore, may be considered as of some weight respecting the treaty in contemplation.

Mr. Mitchell examines the several propositions which have been submitted to lord North, by the directors of the East India company, as the basis of a treaty with government; but, previous to this enquiry, he investigates the fundamental principles upon which the propositions appear to have been framed.

The two leading principles, which he supposes to be implied in the negociation, are, first, that in consideration of a renewal of the charter, it was reasonable, and had been customary, that an adequate compensation should be paid by the company to the public. Secondly, That as the nation claims a right, upon the expiration of the company's present charter, and after liquidating the debt due by the public to the company, to assume possession of the territories now held by the latter in India, it would therefore be for the interest of the company to purchase a suspension of that claim, during a continuance of the proposed charter, by admitting the public to a participation of the revenues arising from those possessions.

In respect of the former of these principles, he is of opinion, that the million to be deposited by the company in the hands of the government, and there to remain without interest, which he considers as an annual gratuity of fifty thousand pounds, is a just and moderate compensation to the public, for the monopoly of the trade to India.

In regard to the latter, he is also fully persuaded that it is founded in justice.

Mr. Mitchell proceeds to consider the plan which has been framed by the directors of the East India company. He begins with the first proposition, which relates to the duration of the charter; and he endeavours to evince, from the effects of short leases in general, that the term proposed for the continuance of the charter must prove destructive to the company's territorial acquisitions.

The author next considers the sixth proposition, relative to the mode proposed for a participation of revenue. This proposition bears, that each year a distinct account of the nett profits of the company be made up, and that they be divided in the manner following, viz. The company shall always receive eight *per cent.* if the profits admit of such a dividend.—The public shall also

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receive eight *per cent.* if the profits amount to sixteen *per cent.*—When the profits are less than sixteen *per cent.* the public shall receive all above eight *per cent.*—If the profits exceed sixteen *per cent.* the surplus shall be equally divided between the public and the company.—The moiety of the surplus appropriated to the company shall each year, after payment of the increased dividend, be applied to the discharge of the company's debt.

This article, the author observes, is framed on a supposition, that a dividend to the proprietors of eight *per cent.* is an adequate allowance for the profits of their trade. The directors say, that on an average of forty years, their nett profits have amounted to nine and a half *per cent.* To this Mr. Mitchell replies, that eight *per cent.* on such large investments as they now bring home, arising from trade and revenue together, is more than equal to nine and a half *per cent.* on their former smaller investments. One additional advantage which they would gain, is, that when any calamity befall their factories, either by war, or the loss of their ships, the revenues must indemnify them.

The author's remarks on the subsequent part of this proposition are peculiarly calculated to excite the apprehension of the company.

Mr. Mitchell next considers the degree of exclusive control and management, proposed to be vested in the company, independent of government. In treating of this subject, the author, in a strain of argumentative paraphrase, mixed with pleasantries, exposes the different views of the minister and the directors of the company; and he contends that the propositions are exceedingly defective in their most essential parts.

The author having endeavoured to shew, that the propositions framed by the directors are liable to great objections, proceeds to lay before the public such articles as he thinks ought to form the basis of an equitable treaty. But for these we must refer our readers to the pamphlet, which, doubtless, claims the attention of all who are particularly interested in the affairs of the company.

*The Speech of Edmund Burke, Esq. in the House of Commons on the 11th of Feb. 1780, on his Motion for a Plan of Public Economy, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hay.*

Having observed it announced in the newspapers, that Mr. Burke's speech, on the 11th of February, is to be published for Mr. Doddsley in a few days, we must consider the speech now before us as not authenticated by the author. In its present form, it is likewise incomplete, a general detail being frequently substituted in the room of what was said by Mr. Burke. In the more essential parts, however, perhaps the speech is genuine, and it may gratify the curiosity of those who are impatient to be furnished with even a general account of that celebrated oration.

*Proposals for paying Great Part of the National Debt, and Reducing the Taxes immediately. By Robert Bird, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Doddsley.*

If mature deliberation, and a zeal for the public good, have any claim to regard, Mr. Bird appears to be entitled to particu-

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lar attention; for he informs us, that he has revolved the subject in his mind above a year; and that, in the present exigence of the state, his conscience would accuse him if he was silent. After stating the advanced price of various kinds of provisions, and mentioning in general the complex operation of taxes, with their pernicious influence on manufactures, the author addresses himself to the first lord of the treasury, whom he presents with a scheme for the payment of the national debt which is owing to the inhabitants of these kingdoms. The plan he suggests is, that every man should pay to the government a twentieth part of his property. The consequence of this measure, it is alleged, would be a reduction of half the present taxes, by which means every person would have double as much to spend as before, or which is the same thing, might perhaps buy twice as much with the same money. Mr. Bird warmly urges this expedient, and concludes with pointing out the general mode of carrying it properly into execution.

*Facts: addressed to the Bankholders, Stockholders, Merchants, Farmers, Manufacturers, Tradersmen, Proprietors of every Description, and generally to all the Subjects of Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. 2s. Johnson.*

The Facts addressed to the public in this pamphlet relate to various supposed abuses in the expenditure of the national supplies; such as the navy debt, expence of the ordnance, rum contract, extraordinaries of the army, &c. It is certain that many articles of the public charge may appear exorbitant, of which, were the application to be fully specified, a candid examiner, perhaps, might not disapprove; but while the accounts of the expenditure remain unrevised by parliament, neither can suspicion be effectually precluded, nor administration, however economical, acquitted of all censure.

*Thoughts on the present County Petitions. 8vo. 1s. L. Davis.*

These Thoughts are addressed to the gentlemen, clergy, and freeholders throughout England, and are delivered in six letters. In the first letter, the author intimates a suspicion, that the conduct of those who at present promote the petitions and associations, is not really founded upon the patriotic principles which they profess, but proceeds from selfish and ambitious views. He even goes farther, and declares he is persuaded that the promoters of these petitions and associations do not seriously wish that even the prayer of the petition should be complied with. This opinion he founds upon a supposition of their not being altogether deprived of hope, that they may some time or other obtain the administration of affairs. He also thinks, that should the petitions be so numerous and come from so great and respectable a part of the nation, as to render it impolitic in the ministry to disregard them, and even induce them to adopt the proposed reform, the popularity of the leaders would, in that case, be immediately transferred to the present ministry. The author ad-

mits, however, that there are many places, of exorbitant emoluments, which might be reduced, as well as many fine cure places which might be abolished: and he proposes a tax upon all places and pensions, proportionable to their respective amount; fine cure places and pensions to pay double the tax of the efficient places in the same class.

Since the publication of this pamphlet, the proposed reform has been moved in parliament; and we may therefore expect that the effect of those petitions will be soon determined by the legislature.

*Authentic Minutes of the Debate in the Irish House of Commons, on the 20th of December, 1779, on receiving the Resolutions of the British House of Commons for granting to Ireland a free Trade.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. H. Payne.

Several speeches said to have been delivered by members of the Irish parliament, relative to the resolutions of the British House of Commons for granting to Ireland a free trade, were retailed in the news-papers some time ago. However genuine the compositions might be, the mode of publication was not such as could establish their authenticity. In the pamphlet before us, not only this defect is supplied, but the various speeches are collected. In general, they breathe the sentiments of congratulation on the auspicious dawn of national prosperity, and contain the warmest expressions of gratitude to his majesty, the British minister, and parliament, for the liberal terms which have lately been granted to Ireland by the legislature of this country. Intermixed with these compliments, we meet with some animadversions on the conduct of the minority, some of the members of which are charged with misrepresenting the intention of the Irish associations, and even with traversing, for the sake of opposing government, the measures which administration had adopted respecting that country.

*The Canadian Freeholder: in Three Dialogues between an Englishman and Frenchman, settled in Canada. Vol. III. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. White.*

The first volume of this work contained Remarks and Observations on the Quebec Act, and the Boston Charter Act, with a kind of a plan of reconciliation between this country and her colonies. The second volume was occupied with an Examination of the Judgment of the Court of King's Bench relative to the authority of the crown over conquered and ceded countries. The volume now before us comprizes farther Considerations respecting an accommodation with America. The object first proposed is, to remove from the minds of the Americans the apprehensions of having bishops established amongst them, by the authority of the king or parliament of Great Britain, without the consent of their own assemblies. The measure next proposed is, an amendment of the constitutions of the provincial councils in the several royal governments of America, (which are governed only



only by the king's commissions, without a charter) by increasing to, at least, twice the present number, the members of such councils, and by appointing them to hold their seats during their lives or good behaviour, instead of holding them at the pleasure of the crown. To these proposals is subjoined a variety of other considerations, unnecessary for us to enumerate, which are severally discussed in a conversation between a Frenchman and an Englishman. The dialogue is argumentative and dispassionate; but whether the investigation be not continued to a length that is tiresome, the patience of the reader must determine.

D I V I N I T Y.

*A Sermon preached before the University of Cambridge, on Friday, February 4, 1780, being the Day appointed for a general Fast. By Richard Watson, D. D. F. R. S. 4to. 1s. Rivington.*

This *concio ad clerum*, or rather *ad populum*, 'comes, as Shakespeare says, in such a questionable shape,' that we are in doubt whether it should be placed among our political or theological articles. Whether, however, we consider it as a political pamphlet, by a warm partisan of opposition, or as a sermon, by a professor of divinity, we must allow that it has a considerable share of merit. The subject is important; and the style nervous and animated. On some of the most critical points of political controversy the author expresses himself with remarkable poignancy and freedom.—This, indeed, in the present state of our public affairs, though it may be admired by some readers as manly, laudable, and disinterested, will be condemned by others, as factious and illiberal.

The author takes his text from the second chapter of Isaiah, where the prophet says, 'Nation shall not lift up sword against nation, neither shall they learn war any more.'

Having observed, that in spite of all that reason or revelation has suggested, the spirit of contention among men still continues, and war has not yet ceased in the world, he attributes these calamities to the ambition of princes, or the private views of those about them.

'The prosperity of a state (says he), or, which with them is the same thing, the gratification of their ambition, or any other passion, they think may be prosecuted by all possible means; in public transactions they acknowledge no justice, but what springs from utility, and is regulated thereby; the sanctity of treaties is despised; guaranties are broken as soon as made; and they consider him as a sorry politician indeed, who expects that any nation will adhere to its engagements longer than whilst it is their interest not to break them. There can be no doubt that individuals, professing principles such as these, are not Christians. They may be potent princes, experienced statesmen, able generals; but they are not Christians. Christianity in its regards, steps beyond the narrow bound of national advantage in quest of universal good; it does not encourage particular patriotism in opposition to general benignity; or prompt us to love our country at the expence of our integrity; or allow us to indulge our passions to the detriment of thousands. It looks upon

upon all the human race as children of the same father, and wishes them equal blessings: in ordering us to do good, to love as brethren, to forgive injuries, and to study peace, it quite annihilates the disposition for martial glory, and utterly debases the pomp of war.

He proceeds to observe, that, at present, 'the obligations of religion seem to be swallowed up in the gulf of political or commercial interest.' He deplores, in some pathetic periods, the unhappy fate of Corsica, 'lamented,' he says, 'by every friend of humanity, assisted by none.' He bestows some animated versions on the partition of Poland, the councils of the house of Bourbon, and the petty princes of Germany, who let out their troops for pay to serve any cause; and severely censures the want of principle and candour in our political conduct. On this topic he speaks with a peculiar intrepidity.

'We believe and hope there are few who wish to see government supported till the king of England becomes as absolute as the princes of the continent, the British parliament as venal and obsequious as the senate of Rome in the decline of the empire.—We believe and hope there are few who wish to see government opposed, in order that the constitution may be changed from a monarchical to a republican form, or the crown transferred from the brow of his majesty and the house of Hanover to any other person or family.—But we trust and hope there are many, who with a perfect veneration for the person of the king, the dignity of his government, the legal rights and all the constitutional power of the crown, wish to see its overgrown influence reduced by lawful and quiet means to its ancient size, and the several powers of the different branches of the Legislature restored to their salutary poise and constitutional equilibrium. By whatever opprobrious appellations, men of this sentiment may be stigmatized by the spirit of party, let them be contemptuously or injuriously called patriots, republicans, or traitors, still will they be considered by every impartial and disinterested person as honest men, as sincere lovers of their country, as the king's best friends.—As the king's best friends, because upon any emergency foreign or domestic, heaven avert the occasions of them both! the throne will find its firmest support, not from those who are desirous of extending its influence beyond the boundary marked out by the blood of our ancestors, but from those who detesting alike despotism and republicanism, are zealous to establish its power, its splendor, and its permanence, on the affectionate loyalty of a free people, on the virtuous voice of an independent parliament.'

'It is, he says, the infelicity of party to transgress the bounds of Christian charity, decency, and good sense, . . . to attempt poisoning the ears of royalty, by representing the disinterested opposers of an unconstitutional influence, as secret enemies to a just and constitutional prerogative;—to attempt poisoning the ears of the people, by representing those, who are averse to measures, which probably, in all good conscience, they cannot but think inexpedient or unjust, as greedy expectants of lucrative places, as factious citizens, and suspicious subjects, as giving rise to dissensions, and vigour to resistance.'—Our author might have added, that it is the infelicity of party to attempt to poison the ears of the people, by insinuating, that the measures pursued by the court, or the administration, for supporting the

the dignity of the crown, or the glory of the empire, are only calculated to ruin the nation, or establish a despotic power.

In the spirit of a despairing and ill-boding prophet, he tells us, that 'the empire is brought into a calamitous situation; that the now sands tottering on the verge of ruin, affrighted and amazed; that she calls out for help on those whom the formerly saved from destruction, and they have hitherto refused to hear her; that she is become the derision of nations; and that those, who envied her former prosperity, behold, with malignant pleasure, her humbled state.'

This is the language of our modern patriots; but the best friends of the empire cannot allow, that she is become 'the derision of nations,' and in that *humbled* state, in which some have represented her.

The following apostrophe, at the conclusion, is extremely animated.

'Lord God omnipotent, ruler of nations, hear us! persuaded that thou art, in utter self-annihilation we adore thy inscrutable nature. Persuaded that thou art the moral governor, as well as the creator of the universe, in steadfast faith we address our prayer.—Thy wisdom, O Lord, is not limited by time; it pervades eternity. Thy goodness is not circumscribed by place; it comprehends the universe. If for the advancement of thy glory, the propagation of thy Son's gospel; the promotion of the general good of mankind; thou hast decreed that this nation is to be humbled, this empire divided, this war protracted, in dutiful acquiescence we kiss the rod of thy chastisement, knowing all thy dispensations to be wise and good.—Thy judgments, O Lord, are true and righteous; interest cannot sway them; passion cannot pervert them; nor ignorance mislead them: if in thy judgment, we are engaged with our brethren in an unrighteous cause, we should think it an impious mockery of thy majesty to supplicate protection; we ask instruction; beseeching thee to illumine the understandings of our rulers, with the knowledge of what is right, and to influence their hearts, that knowing they may do it.—But, if our cause be just in thy sight with all our enemies, and it be for our iniquities that thou hast brought these evils upon us, in thy wrath we pray thee to remember mercy; Nineveh repented, and was forgiven; we repent, and implore pardon. Thou hast broken the pride of our power; we accept the punishment of our iniquity: thou hast humbled our uncircumcised hearts, we return in fasting and prayer to thee, the God of our strength, hear us, O Lord, from heaven thy dwelling-place, *maintain our cause*, hear and forgive thy people.'

It is, perhaps, too presumptuous to say, in our addresses to infinite wisdom, 'we repent;' when probably, as a nation, we have not repented.

*A Sermon preached before the University of Oxford, at St. Mary's Church, on Monday, October 29, 1779; being the Anniversary of his Majesty's happy Accession to the Throne. By James Williamson, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Dodley.*

Some writers have represented the Christian religion, as at variance with those principles by which human societies are improved and brought to perfection; or, at best, but as a dead weight upon

upon arts and industry, where it meets with encouragement and protection from government. In opposition to this action, Mr. Williamson endeavours to shew, that true Christianity is consistent with the most active employments of life; and that those passages of scripture which have been supposed to favour the contrary opinion, admit of a very different and very natural explanation.—When our Saviour asserted, that his kingdom was not of this world, this declaration, he says, was addressed to a particular people, and applicable to particular circumstances, and not at all proposed as a rule of conduct for different people in very different circumstances. The Jews entertained absurd notions concerning the nature of Christ's kingdom. They seemed to expect, that their Messiah would enable them to trample their enemies under their feet, to indulge themselves in revenge for real or supposed injuries, and to gratify every sensual appetite. It was therefore necessary for our Saviour to declare, that those, who could be the subjects of his kingdom, must be people of very different tempers, characters, and expectations, from the generality of the Jews. The directions which he gave to his apostles, and the inspiration which they afterwards received by the Holy Spirit, had likewise, he says, a particular reference to the manner which was to be followed in propagating the gospel through the different regions of the world. The first Christians were not nations of Christians, but as sheep among wolves, and therefore a peculiar conduct was necessary.—This, he thinks, will shew the propriety of many passages in the New Testament, which have been misrepresented, by supposing them addressed to Christians of all ages and all nations.

This notion is ingenious, and seems to be very just.

*A Sermon preached at St. Thomas's, January 1, 1780, for the Benefit of the Charity School in Gravel-Lane, Southwark. By A. Kippis, D. D. F. R. S., and S. A. 8vo. 6d.*

In this discourse the learned author illustrates these words of the evangelist, Luke ii. 52, 'Jesus increased in wisdom and stature, and in favour with God and man;' pointing out the virtues which, we may suppose, entitled the blessed Jesus to the character of the text. These virtues were a regard to God in all his behaviour, a great proficiency in valuable knowledge, obedience to his parents, diligence, humility, modesty, integrity, moderation, and benevolence: and these, the author observes, should be practised by young persons, in order to their obtaining the same exalted character.

*The Foundery Budget opened; or, the Arcanum of Wesleyanism disclosed. By John Macgowan. 8vo. 9d. Keith.*

The design of this tract is to shew, that Mr. Wesley and Mr. Sellon have, in some of their publications, maintained the same opinion, with respect to grace, works, election, &c. as the popish writers.

*Thy*

*The Catechism of the Church of England, with Notes.* By A. Crocker, Schoolmaster at Ilminster. 12mo. 3d. Robinson.

The Church Catechism in a commodious form, and at a small price, with some explanatory notes, for the use of young people.

## P O E T R Y.

*Eastern Eclogues; written during a Tour through Arabia, Egypt, and other Parts of Asia and Africa, in the Year 1777.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Doddsley.

These Eclogues are written by Mr. Irwin, a gentleman in the service of the East-India Company, who informs us in a short advertisement prefixed to them, that 'if they pave the way for the favourable reception of the Journey, a work which he has prepared for the press, viz. a Voyage up the Red Sea, and a Tour through the Deserts of Thebais,—the value which he affixes to them will be fully answered.' These poems may therefore be considered as no bad *letters of recommendation* in favour of the author, by way of introduction to the public. The Eclogues are written in an easy and natural style, and give a competent idea of oriental manners, which are well described in several parts of them.

The following lines (which we shall give our readers as a specimen) are a kind of dedication of the poems to Mrs. Irwin, who we suppose is the author's wife, proving him to be a very good husband, and, at the same time, no contemptible poet.

'Lamp of my life! and summit of my praise!  
The bright reward of all my toilsome days!  
After unnumber'd storms and perils brav'd,  
The port in which my shipwreck'd hopes were sav'd;  
Who, when my youth had pleasure's round enjoy'd,  
Came to my craving soul, and fill'd the void.  
To thee, whose feeling heart and judgment chaste,  
Give thee of fancy's luxuries to taste;  
To thee I dedicate these rambling lays,  
And hold thy smiles beyond a monarch's bays!  
'See, on our bliss the nuptial year decline,  
And still the sun which lit it, seems to shine!  
Crown'd is our union with a smiling boy,  
And thou still courted like a virgin coy.  
Ye shades of lovers! witness what we feel—  
To modern couples vain were the appeal!"

The Series of Adventures which are speedily to be published, will, we doubt not, be an agreeable entertainment to the public. The Eclogues, in the mean time, have sufficient poetical merit to make our readers desirous of a more intimate acquaintance with the author of them.

*Speculation; or, a Defence of Mankind: a Poem.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Doddsley.

There is as much poetical merit in this little piece as in any thing of the kind that has lately fallen under our inspection: that

That natural expression, and easy flow of style which so distinguished Prior, Swift, and Gay, seem to be happily adopted by our author, who, by mere dint of genius, and the power of numbers, has contrived to draw entertainment out of a very barren and unpromising subject, which, as he (or she, for the writer may be a female) observes, is

‘ Ill-suited to melodious song.’

After telling us that

‘ Of all th’ unfortunate expressions  
Abus’d by wights of all professions,  
Hack’d at the bar, in pulpit tortur’d,  
Or chapel of St. Stephen slaughter’d,  
Not one was e’er so basely treated,  
Of spirit, sense, and meaning cheated,  
Or e’er deserv’d commiseration,

Like this poor word, call’d—Speculation:’

the ingenious writer proceeds to illustrate it by giving a humorous description of bulls; bears, and lame ducks; and concludes the satire on them in these very pretty lines.

‘ Could I, ye gods, in equal strain  
Their various fallacies explain,  
And all their fiend-like arts rehearse  
In faithful and immortal verse,  
No more the bull and bear should glow  
Resplendent in the solar bow,  
But banish’d to th’ infernal shore  
Give Pluto’s realms two demons more:  
The duck debarr’d from Lethe’s spring,  
Whose waters sweet oblivion bring,  
In Phlegethon her seat should fix,  
And speculate the pools of Styx.’

We will not anticipate our reader’s pleasure by giving any more quotations, but recommend this agreeable *morceau* to their perusal; only observing, that with all its merit, there is much in it *quod tollere vultis*; and that the writer, who seems possessed of great poetical talents, will make a more considerable figure on a better subject.

*Poetical Effusions. To which is added, The War of Isis-Thona; a Poem, from Ossian, in English Verse. 4to. 2s. 6d. Hand.*

These are the Effusions of taste and genius, and, as such, we advise our readers to purchase them. The following lines may serve as a specimen of the author’s manner, and is, in our opinion, one of the prettiest Epitaphs we have met with for some time past.

Epitaph on Mrs. Wr—n.

‘ All cold, beneath this narrow heap,  
Wr-n’s angel charms in silence deep;  
And here the ties of virtue end,  
The tender mother, wife, and friend.  
For her each gentle bosom grieves;  
‘Tis not the turf alone that heaves;  
Pity and love her loss deplore,  
Their fav’rite child can feel no more.

And

And see, the woodbine loves to stray  
 Around the sod that clasps her clay;  
 The primrose with the violet vies,  
 To deck the grave where Beauty lies.  
 Here Melancholy, lonely maid,  
 Shall oft the live-long night be laid;  
 And when the morning beam appears,  
 Revive the verdure,—with her tears.

The Sonnets in this collection are pleasing and well-written, and the Ode to Distress elegant and pathetic. The War of Inish-Thona might, we think, have been omitted, as it appears to more advantage in the original of Ossian than in our author's laboured version.

*The Triumph of Affectation: a Poem. 4to. 1s. Rew.*

Affectation is undoubtedly one of the fairest objects of satire, and cannot be too often nor too severely ridiculed. The author of this little poem has at least, therefore, the merit of choosing a good subject, which he has treated not unsuccessfully. After hunting down this glaring folly in the gay world, and as it puts on various forms in the metropolis, he pursues it to the universities, and imagines, not without reason, that it is to be met with in the theatre also.

'Tis affectation that pollutes the page  
 Of those who toil to prop the sinking stage;  
 By Jephson's side see wit and rustian stand,  
 And pomp and poverty with Cumberland;  
 A verbal mist, untinted with ease and grace,  
 Now veils the sense, and now assumes its place;  
 As ev'ning clouds obscure the parting ray,  
 Or feebly tinct sophisticated day;  
 Now grov'ling thoughts with lofty sounds contend,  
 Whilst those refuse to rise, and thirst to bend;  
 Now form a junction against heav'n's decree,  
 Like S— when ally'd with Bloomsbury:  
 So shines, when Addington prescribes for B—,  
 St. George's star upon the Bath surtout.'

These lines are, by no means, contemptible. Our readers will meet with some in this poem that are better: we therefore recommend it to their perusal.

*Poems fit for a Bishop; which two Bishops will read. 4to. 1s. Almon.*

Our readers will see by the title-page, which is rather quaint and affected, from what quarter these verses come, and that they are what may be properly termed party poetry. The American Prayer, however, has some good lines in it, of which the following, taken from the conclusion, are perhaps the best.

'The wretch, whose path is on the strand  
 Of Danube, or the Rhine;  
 Whose griefs are heard in Gallie land,  
 On Alp or Appenine:

Who

' Who Guadalquiver, or the flood  
Of Tagus drinks in pain;  
And they, who (a degenerate brood)  
Shall feel a British chain;

' We pray, that hither all may come,  
(Who trouble know) to share  
The safety of a better home,  
A refuge from despair.

' Beneath the wide-protecting shade  
Of law, to virtue free  
To dwell in joy that cannot fade,  
And know thy peace and thee !'

The other little poems are below mediocrity.

*A Ride and Walk through Stourhead: a Poem.* 4to. 1s. Rivington.

If our readers are desirous of seeing the true *bathe*, or art of sinking in poetry, we would recommend this singular performance to their perusal, containing two-and-twenty pages of the most ridiculous bombast, nonsense, and absurdity, that ever disgraced the English language. In the beginning of this poem the author tells us that the mare which he rode to Stourhead

'—any other lord ne'er recogniz'd;  
But from her infant state was taught to *munch*  
Ceres's bounty from his constant hand.  
*Bad to be moved*, with stately solemn pace,  
*Progressive* only, she at length ascends.'

This, no doubt, is true wit and humour. He then proceeds to the descriptive.

' Here stands the fir to Hoare's all-fost'ring hand  
Debtor for its sublimity; the pride  
And joy of Cybele; not only first  
In the Cybelean grove, but 'midst the race  
Of its aerial sisters none's its second.'

Why the fir should owe its 'sublimity' to Mr. Hoare, we cannot readily conceive, any more than what he means by 'none its second': certain it is, that our author's muse is *second* to none in her *sublimity*. He compares a village to a hare,

' Immerg'd, as latent *puffs* in furrow deep.'

Talks of 'speaking pines, luscious terraces, crimson-pated linnets, and regular irregularity.' Taking occasion to speak of Devonshire, he says,

' One county boasts of flocks, one of its herds,  
A third of corn-land; chequer'd Devon all,  
Nay, *more than all*.'

A county that boasts of 'more than all,' must be an extraordinary one indeed. We suppose this author, whom we admire *more than all* other poets, was born in it: but it would only tire both ourselves and our readers, to accompany such a traveller through his *Ride and Walk*; for, as he sweetly sings,

' Above, below, and on each adverse shore,  
Such crouds of *beauties* meet at ev'ry point,  
That even *admiration* is *outripp'd*.'

We shall therefore follow him no farther, but wish him a good journey, and take our leave.

Female



*Female Retaliation: a Poetical Essay.* 4to. 6d. Fielding and Walker.

The author of this piece informs us in the title-page, that it was written by a *Man*; which we are very glad to hear, as we hope and believe, for the honour of the fair sex, that there is not a *woman* in the kingdom capable of producing so contemptible a performance.

*Heroic Epistle from Hamet the Moor, Slipper-maker in London, to the Emperor of Morocco, with an Apology for Publication, addressed to the Lutheran and Calvinistical Ambassadors.* 4to. 2s. Cadell.

Two shillings worth of very bad poetry, ushered in by seven or eight pages of unintelligible prose, addressed to the Lutheran and Calvinistical Embassadors, Envoys, &c. wherein the author makes an awkward attempt at wit and humour, without the least pretensions to either. The verse which follows is quite as dull, and almost as difficult to understand; as it is scarce possible to divine, from beginning to end, what the author aims at. We can just make out, in one part of it, that the poet wishes to be very arch and severe on a very improper subject, where carrying this emperor, we know not for what reason, to Windsor-park; he says,

Now—as Apollo's grooms, at dawn, provide  
A fiery courier for his morning's ride—  
So thou, well hors'd on B-t-m-n's fleetest nag,  
Shall sport with majesty! and hunt the stag!  
For here no monsters to the welkin roar  
No javelin'd sportman seeks the tusked boar!  
A prickler leads the way along the heath,  
While Hounds, *collateral*, urge the ven' for death.  
Echo's loud organs harmonize the sphere—  
The k—, the p—, the b—p, view the deer—  
The q—n herself rolls o'er the rutty plains!  
Maids of Arcadia guide the whisky's reins!  
And coaches, buggys, carts, fill up the neighb'ring lanes.

These are some of the best lines in the poem, which, as Reviewers, we were obliged to peruse; a task, however, which we would not wish to impose on any of our readers.

*Poems, Divine and Moral, on several Occasions. Part I. By Tho. Wilkins, Minor.* 4to. 3s. 6d. T. Payne.

Upwards of a hundred pages of very bad pious verses, calculated only for the meridian of the *Tabernacle*, and *whitewash*; we are informed, by a *minor*. We are afraid that Mr. Wilkins's muse, who is at present, it seems, in her *minority*, will never arrive at years of *discretion*, as we cannot discover the least spark of genius throughout the whole collection. Religious poems, indeed, as one of our best critics has lately proved by most incontrovertible arguments, never did, or ever can, succeed. It happens, however, sometimes; that a devout bard discovers marks of poetical merit; and shews, that if he had chosen to write on *terrestrial* matters, he might have had a chance

chance of being read : but this is by no means the case of Mr. Wilkins, who never rises so high as even Sternhold and Hopkins. We shall trouble our readers, therefore, with only one short quotation, which may serve as well as a hundred to justify our opinion of this performance. This, gentle reader, please to observe, is part of a Morning Hymn.

When I lay down upon my bed  
Thy mercy was my stay  
Thy heavenly curtain o'er me spread  
Till light hath crown'd the day.  
The nightly hours ran swiftly round,  
And daylight soon appear'd;  
How does my soul with praise rebound  
To God, that was my guard?  
Ten thousand thousand foes might be  
Around me while I slept;  
Ten thousand thanks I give to thee,  
That me in safety kept.

*A New History of England, in Verse, or, the Entertaining British Memorialis. Containing the Annals of Great Britain, from the Roman Invasion to the present Time. Designed more particularly for the Use of Youth; but serving at the same Time to refresh the Memories of Persons in riper Years. With an Introduction concerning the Nature and Study of History. By Charles Egerton, Esq. 12mo. 3s. Cooke.*

A History of England in Verse, extremely concise and well-written, would, perhaps, be no useless or unentertaining work, as it might serve to impress the most remarkable dates, facts, and occurrences, on the memory of children, more forcibly than a long and labour'd prose detail of them.

The following short specimen of one reign will convince our readers, that the author of the History before us is not qualified to execute a task of this nature.

*Edward V. the seven years Monarch of England since the Conquest.*  
He reigned only two months and twelve days of 1483.

The king deceas'd, the youthful prince is found  
At Ludlow castle, which his friends surround,  
He, and the duke of York, are soon decoy'd  
To London, with intent to be destroy'd;  
Their cruel uncle their destruction plans,  
Yet every measure with pretension scans;  
First get himself as the sole regent nam'd,  
And as protector of the realm proclaim'd;  
With malice then lord Hastings' life pursues,  
A loyal peer, who might obstruct his views,  
Deprives his youthful nephews of their lives,  
And at the summit of his aim arrives.

We shall only observe, that he who, after perusing this, wishes to see any more of it, must have the patience of a *Reviewer*.

D R A.

D R A M A T I C.

*The Deaf Letter: a Farce, in two Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By R. Pilon. 8vo. 12s. Bowen.*

Farces are written for the stage, and not for the closet. This has been several times exhibited, and therefore we are to suppose must be a good one. We have read it ourselves; we would advise others to see it.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

*The Beauties of British Antiquity; Selected from the Writings of esteemed Antiquaries. With Notes and Observations. By John Gough. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Longman.*

The author of this compilation has arranged his materials according to the chronological order of the periods to which they respectively belong. He therefore begins with an account of the remains of the ancient Britons. These are, Stonehenge; the barrows; the temple of Abury, near Marlborough, in Wiltshire; Silbury-hill, near the former; the temple of Rowbright, in Oxfordshire.

Next follow Roman remains, which begin with a description of Bath, Aquæ Solis, as it stood in 1542; Kenechester, the ancient Ariconium, in Herefordshire; Camelet Castle, antiently Colomea, in Somerset, on the borders of Dorchester; Silchester, the Vindonia of the Romans, in Hampshire; Verulam, the ancient Verulamium, in Hertfordshire; Roman antiquities in London; Lincoln, the ancient Lindum; Richborough castle, Rutupia, in Kent; Limne, the Limanis Portus, in Kent; Burgh castle, Gariannonum, in Dorset; the Roman Pharos in Dover castle; Old Sarum, Sorbidentum; Martinsal hill; Batsbury castle; Cirencester, antiently Corinium; Carleon, Isca Silurum, in Monmouthshire; the four great Roman roads, viz. the Fosse, Ikenning-street, Walling-street, and Harmer-street; the Rich wall.

In the description of the Saxon antiquities are included the following, viz. St. Peter's church, in Oxford; Illey church, near Oxford; the church of Stokely, in Buckinghamshire; the church in Dover castle; and St. John's church, near Lewes, in Sussex.

Afterwards are ranged the antiquities subsequent to the Norman conquest. These consist of castles, abbeys, cathedrals, &c. viz. Kenilworth castle, Carregleson castle, Rochester castle, Glastonbury abbey, Westminster abbey, Durham cathedral, &c.

To the antiquities of each period the author has subjoined some general observations explanatory of the subject. As a collection, the volume may afford entertainment to such as are desirous of information relative to the principal antiquities in England.

*An Historical Account of the Virgin Islands, in the West Indies.*  
By George Suckling, Esq. 8vo. 2s. White.

The Virgin Islands, consisting of upwards of thirty islands and keys, are situated in about 18 degrees of north latitude, and 63 of west longitude. They lie between St. John de Porto Rico and the Leeward Carribbee Islands, and are possessed by the English and Danes. Mr. Suckling relates the history of those islands, from their being settled by the English near a century past, to their obtaining a legislature of their own in the year 1773; and he describes the lawless state in which his majesty's subjects in those islands have remained since that time to the present. Mr. Suckling had been appointed chief justice of those islands, and complains of the losses he has sustained in the employment of government; the procuring redress seems to have been his motive for this publication.

*Account of a Debate in Coachmaker's-Hall. By Harum Skarum, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Kearsly.*

This is an awkward attempt at humour by an author who has no more idea of it than the floor of that Coachmaker's-Hall which he means to ridicule. We will give our readers a very short (which, perhaps, they will think a long) specimen of Mr. Harum Skarum's manner.

One of the questions before the learned society was, he tells us, "Does not throwing at cocks on Shrove-Tuesday, threaten a general continuance of the Popish tenets, and ultimately to bring in the Pretender?" when Sam Simple got up, and made the following curious oration:

"Mr. President, I a'n't no spollard, like the gentleman in the great wig, but I thinks as how I have a right to talk as much as he, for I paid sixpence to come in as well as he; but I should not have said nothing neither in this affair, but me'thinks I knows about *shying* at cocks as much as he. I remember what monstrous good fun we had last Shrove Tuesday in our lane. My heart! what fun it was! Why we *shy'd* down all the cocks in the neighbourhood.

"There was Bobby Pestle, the potecary, my uncle Snuffle, and Peter Pillage, the exciseman, and honest little Capias the bailiff. How we did laugh! And so Pillage he got tipsy, and he began jawing, and said as how I was a little sniveling rascal; and so I said as he was a rascal, if he came to that. And so he hit me a punch o' the face, and so I gin him another, and if it had not been for Ned Softly, my heart how I would have warmed him, that I would! I do love *shying* at cocks, that I do, because it is such fun. And what business has the Pope with my cocks? I'll shy at 'em for all him, that I will."

Reader, if you are not satisfied, buy the pamphlet, and peruse the whole of this curious performance.



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T H E

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *March*, 1780.

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*The History of the United Provinces of the Netherlands, from the Death of Philip II. King of Spain, to the Truce made with Albert and Isabella. By William Lothian, D. D. 4to. 16s. in boards. Doddsley.*

THOSE periods of history are more particularly splendid and instructing which exhibit states in their progress to greatness, and detail the struggles they sustain in defence of their liberty and independence. Much information and entertainment accordingly might have been expected from the subject which is treated in the volume before us. The oppressions of Spain, rousing the courage and vigour of the United Provinces, opened a field for great actions. A long and momentous war was commenced and maintained. A small division of an extensive empire throwing off its allegiance, unimpaired by the resources of the power of a rich and magnificent prince, zealous for its freedom, trusting to its courage and its firmness, involved in great calamities, and superior to them all, is an object which has every claim to attract interest and attention, and to call out the happiest exertions of the historian. Such is the fortunate subject of the present performance.

The revolt of the Seven Provinces (says Dr. Lothian) in the Netherlands from the dominions of Philip II. king of Spain, and the establishment of these Republics, are remarkable events in modern history. The United Provinces, though of small extent, and an inconsiderable part of a great empire, not only opposed the measures of the most powerful monarch then in Europe; carried on war for many years; and even, Vol. XLIX. *March*, 1780. M during

during that time, increased in wealth and importance; but likewise reduced those who once possessed the sovereignty, to treat with them as free states; and, at last, to abandon enterprises in which the utmost efforts had been, in vain, exerted. The causes which produced this revolution, and the means employed by the confederates to preserve their liberties, and acquire independence, merit attention.\*

While it is impossible not to observe the greatness and the unity of the portion of history upon which Dr. Lothian has chosen to employ himself, it is to be remarked as a peculiar advantage to him, that it has been treated only in part, or incidentally, in extensive works, by preceding historians. An author, therefore, could not possibly wish to be in a happier situation with regard to his subject. But these peculiarities, when the real merit of this performance is considered, have a tendency, we fear, that may not prove very favourable to its composer. They excite the most ardent curiosity of the reader; and we do not think that his work is by any means satisfactory. He is, indeed, sufficiently circumstantial and minute; but not attending to the proper purposes of history, or unacquainted with them, his selection of facts is generally made without discrimination; and the information he conveys is often so mixed and disfigured, that it tends to no settled views, and raises surprise by being unconnected or inconsistent. Political discernment and sagacity, artful transitions, a deep penetration into the motives of men, and a striking display of the characters of illustrious personages, are no where to be found in this publication. While the matter fails to recommend itself, the manner and language are also exposed to censure: the narration is cold, and without force; and the strain of the style is uniformly dry and inelegant. It is but justice to remark, that the author appears to have exerted his abilities to their fullest extent; and that he cannot, with propriety, be accused of being hasty or careless.

With this opinion of his performance, it is not consistent with the respect we owe our readers to go over the greater events of his story, or to offer an abridgement of it. Impartiality, however, obliges us to give an extract from this volume; and for this purpose we shall select the introductory paragraphs to it, which may be considered as not the least laboured parts of the work.

\* The Netherlands enjoyed, from the most antient times, a free constitution of government. The Seventeen Provinces formed so many independent states; and each preserved its own particular laws and customs. Though acknowledging a prince, or sovereign, his power was limited; and his authority, conferred by the people, was declared to last no longer than he  
main-

maintained their rights and privileges. When the succession to the chief dignity became confined to one family; when the sovereignty of all the provinces was held by one person; when they were thus united more closely together, and had one common interest; when these quarrels, unavoidable among separate principalities, became less frequent, they gained more strength, acted with more vigour, and rose to opulence and respect. While these affairs, in which all were concerned, were conducted by the general estates, where the representatives of each had a voice, and while the prince restrained the exercise of his power within the bounds prescribed by law, the people, at the same time that they felt their importance, testified their reverence and affection for their sovereign. But, valuing highly the liberty they possessed, and guarding it with the utmost care, every encroachment upon their freedom was viewed with jealousy, and every attempt to extend the prerogative of the prince, warmly opposed. When Philip II. of Spain was put in possession of the Netherlands, by the resignation of his father, the emperor Charles V. he very soon discovered intentions disagreeable to the sentiments of his subjects, and inconsistent with that form of government which he found established in his newly-acquired dominions. A people, unaccustomed to pay implicit obedience, were alarmed with his assuming an authority which they allowed not to his predecessors: considering themselves as entitled to a larger share of the administration, they beheld, with indignation, measures adopted without their concurrence; and, dreading the consequences of permitting any exercise of an usurped power, were disposed early to check every design which arbitrary pleasure might dictate, or an immoderate ambition pursue. When the conduct of Philip appeared to be the result of a determined plan of oppression, and force was employed to procure submission to his commands, a rebellion arose; the injured had recourse to arms, and now, for about thirty years, had supported a war against the invader of their liberties. Seven of the provinces joined in a strict union; boldly declared that he had forfeited the sovereignty; renounced altogether their allegiance; maintained a struggle, in defence of their freedom, with unwearied perseverance; and rejected every proposal of peace with disdain. Philip, tired with the contest, wished to relinquish enterprizes in which his utmost efforts had been exerted in vain. That he might save his honour, while he renounced an authority he could not preserve, and have the prospect of the United Provinces becoming part of the dominions of the Spanish monarchy, though for a time they were transferred to others, he gave his daughter Isabella in marriage to Albert arch duke of Austria, who had acted as his governor, and conferred on them a sovereignty he was unable to retain. While he flattered himself that his rebellious subjects would return to obedience under a prince residing among them; hoped that, by his support, opposition would be

crushed; and concluded, that the revolted provinces would be again annexed to the crown of Spain, death prevented him from seeing the effects of a scheme which policy had suggested, and necessity forced him to adopt.

Philip III. made great preparations for giving powerful aid to his sister, and the arch duke. It was said, that, in order to enable them to push with vigour the war against the United Provinces, he proposed to assist them with a numerous army, and a formidable fleet. The administration of affairs in Spain was greatly changed. Philip dismissed from court some, who, during the former reign, were regarded as most able counsellors, and substituted in their place others more agreeable to his own dispositions. The father thought proper to connive at the confederates trading with Spain, because of advantage to his Spanish subjects. The son discharged this commerce; seized and confiscated the goods of the confederates; even apprehended many Flemish merchants, who had lived long in Spain, and likewise some Spaniards, who had acted as factors for the Flemings; and, by torture, forced them to give up their effects. As, by this conduct, the price of corn was greatly raised, which produced loud complaints, he, at last, allowed the Flemings to import corn, but prohibited their carrying back any kind of goods whatever. The freight became of course much higher, and the evil was remedied only in part. Philip II. always endeavoured to live in friendship with the German princes. His son, imagining that, by their means, the war in the Netherlands was prolonged, was anxious to deprive the confederates of their assistance, though certain that he would raise enemies to himself in the empire. At the same time, he thought, that now, when the sovereignty was bestowed on Albert and Isabella, there would be no necessity to remit such large sums, as formerly from Spain.

Albert pursued the journey he had begun before he had received the accounts of Philip's death, and proceeded to Spain, where his marriage with Isabella was celebrated. The terms on which his new dignity was conferred, by rendering him in a great measure dependant on Spain, diminished its value; and the situation of the provinces afforded him little prospect of enjoying it with tranquillity. He entered upon the supreme administration when a part of these dominions, which Philip pretended to transfer, refused to admit any right he could thus claim, and had long carried on a war in defence of their liberties and independence. They had weakened the strength, almost exhausted the finances, and baffled all the artifices of a most powerful, rich, and cunning prince. Albert had made proposals of peace, which were rejected as insidious; and, when he hoped to recommend himself to those whom he considered as his subjects, had the mortification to observe, that this appearance of moderation was treated by them with contempt. Obligated, therefore, to continue the war, he appointed as governor, during



ing his absence in Spain, cardinal Andrew, and gave the command of his forces to Francis Mendoza, admiral of Arragon: but, whatever abilities they possessed, he could not expect that they would be able to accomplish a design, which, in circumstances much more favourable than the present, had failed. Even these provinces which acknowledged his jurisdiction, had, at the same time that they owned him as their sovereign, expressed sentiments, and made demands, sufficient to alarm his fears. They saw the United Provinces encreasing in power and wealth; enjoying liberty; treated with respect, and supported by neighbouring princes. They found themselves, on the contrary, considered, notwithstanding the late transaction, as subjects of Spain: they were loaded with heavy taxes, without any compensation, or hope of relief; and saw, that in spite of all the exertions they had made, their influence and importance were diminished. Albert could not hear their complaints without uneasiness. Conscious of his inability to subdue the confederates, he would willingly have given up the contest, and been contented with the want of territories which Philip had not power to bestow, if he could secure the obedience of the other provinces. There was some danger that, during the present temper of the people, they would imitate the example of their neighbours, whom they beheld with envy, and attempt to shake off the yoke which every day became more burdensome. It was probably owing to these circumstances that Albert continued in Spain for some time after his marriage, with the design of engaging the new monarch heartily in his interest, and in hopes of procuring that support which his situation required.

The Confederates perceived the intention of Philip in renouncing the sovereignty, and derived fresh spirits and vigour from so clear a proof of the weakness of their enemies. They paid, indeed, heavy taxes; they had been disappointed in their endeavours to find out a passage, by the North, to the Indies, by which they might reach these countries unmolested by the Spaniards, and acquire a new source of wealth; and they were deprived, by a late treaty between Philip and Henry of France, of open assistance from that quarter. But they contributed cheerfully to the expence of the war, while they enjoyed freedom: their naval strength, particularly, had greatly encreased: a fleet sent to the East Indies, by the same route which the Spaniards and Portuguese pursued, had returned, with accounts sufficient to encourage future attempts of the same kind: they hoped to be able, at length, to dispute with Spain the empire of these seas: their cause was favoured by the neighbouring states; and even the adjoining provinces, with whom they were at war, were tired and discontented. They were still possessed of resources which necessity had discovered, and which had been employed with success: their troops were animated with affection for their country, and zeal for the preservation of those liberties they had so long and ably defended; and

their army was conducted by Maurice, whom, as the son of William prince of Orange, the former protector of their liberties, they esteemed, and whose valour and prudence they had now for many years experienced. They refused to listen to any proposals for peace, because they thought that they were designed merely to deceive; and they looked forward to the time when firmness and perseverance would force their enemies to grant honourable terms, and such as would establish their freedom and independence.

There is one observation with which it is proper for us to conclude this article: the clergy of Scotland have of late years discovered a strong solicitude to distinguish themselves in literature. The highest commendation is certainly due to them upon this account: but it is much to be regretted, that neglecting the topics which ought to be intimately known to them, they have chosen so often to exercise their talents in historical composition; a branch of inquiry which, it will be allowed, is by far the least calculated to their state and condition. That simplicity of character, and that abstraction from the world, which become ecclesiastics, accord not with the nice and accurate knowledge of human affairs which is absolutely necessary for the historian: and, perhaps, there is no instance of any parish-priest who, while he possessed the simple and true characteristics of his profession, was able notwithstanding to examine and explain, with profoundness, the folds, the varieties, and the duplicity of statesmen and politicians.

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*Political, Miscellaneous, and Philosophical Pieces. Written by*  
Benj. Franklin, LL. D. and F. R. S. 8vo. 6s. 4to. 10s. 6d.  
*in boards.* Johnson.

**D**R. Franklin has long been known to the public for his experiments relative to electricity, and is now more distinguished by the active part he has sustained in the contest between Great Britain and America. Happy, perhaps, were it for his country had he continued to cultivate philosophy in the shade of retirement, and been content to investigate the laws of æthereal attraction without himself becoming a meteor (if we may use the expression) in the political world. But the character of the work before us, not the conduct of its author, is the object of our consideration.

The first division of the volume contains papers on subjects of general politics, and commences with Observations on the Increase of Mankind, Peopling of Countries, &c. This paper appeared several years ago in the English edition of Dr. Franklin's works.

The second paper is entitled, The Way to Wealth, and was likewise printed many years ago in a preface to the Pennsylvania Almanack.

*Franklin's Political, Miscellaneous, and Philosophical Pieces.* 167  
Almanack, published by the same author. It contains a variety of sentences and proverbs relative to industry and œconomy.

The next paper is a Plan by Messrs. Franklin and Dalrymple for benefiting distant unprovided countries. The purport of this paper is to promote a subscription for sending to New Zealand many of the conveniencies of life, such as fowls, hogs, goats, cattle, corn, iron, &c. of which that great island is totally destitute. The expence of the expedition, cargo included, is calculated at fifteen thousand pounds. The project, doubtless, is exceedingly humane; but perhaps there are many more pressing objects of beneficence within our own hemisphere.

Then follows an Extract of a Letter to Dr. Percival, concerning the provision made in China against famine.

The title of the next paper is, Positions to be examined. This article has been inserted in the Repository for Select Papers on agriculture, arts, and manufactures, Vol. I. It contains a number of remarks founded upon the principles of polity, and such as frequently occur in the different writers on those subjects.

We next meet with Political Fragments, supposed either to be written by Dr. Franklin, or to contain sentiments nearly allied to his own. These fragments are collected from the notes annexed to a pamphlet, called, *The Principles of Trade*, and published in 1774. They consist only of nine observations, which are neither original nor abstruse.

The subsequent article is, *On the Price of Corn, and Management of the Poor*. This article is in the form of dialogue, and is less remarkable for its importance than for an affectation of humour.

Next follows, a paper on Smuggling, and its various species. It had been originally published in the *London Chronicle* for November 24, 1767, and addressed to the printer of that news-paper.

Afterwards occurs *A Short Parable against Persecution*, in imitation of scripture language.

The succeeding article is, *A Letter concerning Persecution in former Ages, the Maintenance of the Clergy, American Bishops, and the State of Toleration in Old England and New England compared*. This formerly appeared in one of the public prints, in June 2, 1772.

The second part of the volume contains papers upon American subjects before the commencement of the troubles. The first is entitled, *Albany Papers*, containing, I. *Reasons and Motives on which the Plan of Union for the Colonies was formed*. II. *Reasons against Partial Unions*. III. *The Plan of Union*

drawn by B.F. and unanimously agreed to by the Commissioners from New Hampshire, Massachusetts-Bay, Rhode-Island, New Jersey, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, met in Congress at Albany, in July, 1754, to consider of the best means of defending the king's dominions in America, &c. a war being then apprehended; with the reasons or motives for each article of the plan.

Next are two Letters to Governor Shirley, concerning the imposition of direct taxes upon the colonies, without their consent. These were published in the London Chronicle in February, 1766, and have since been re-printed in Almon's Remembrancer.

The succeeding article is a Plan for settling two western Colonies in North America, with the reasons for the plan, 1754.

Afterwards occurs, the Interest of Great-Britain considered, with regard to her Colonies, and the Acquisitions of Canada and Guadaloupe.

What next follows is Remarks and Facts relative to the American Paper-money; written several years before the commencement of the present war.

We then meet with Remarks on a Plan for the future Management of Indian Affairs. This plan, we are told, was under the consideration of the ministry before the close of the year 1766.

The third division of the volume contains papers upon American subjects during the troubles.

The first is, Causes of the American Discontents before 1768.

The next is a Letter concerning the Gratitude of America, and the Probability and Effects of a Union with Great-Britain; and concerning the Repeal or Suspension of the Stamp Act.

Letter from Governor Pownall to Dr. Franklin, concerning an equal Communication of Rights, Privileges, &c. to America by Great Britain.

The Examination of Dr. Benjamin Franklin, before the British House of Commons, in February, 1766, relative to the Repeal of the American Stamp Act.

Queries from Mr. Strahan to Dr. Franklin, with the Answers, relative to the Disputes with North America. Written in 1769.

A Prussian Edict, &c. first printed in the Public Advertiser.

Preface by the British Editor (Dr. Franklin) to "The Votes and Proceedings of the Freeholders and other Inhabitants of the Town of Boston, in Town-meeting assembled according to Law, &c." This paper was first printed at Boston, and re-printed at London 1773.

*Proceedings*

Proceedings and Examination, &c. To the Clerk of the Council in waiting; with the Examination of Dr. Franklin, at the Council Chamber in 1774.

Rules for reducing a Great Empire to a small one; presented to a late Minister when he entered upon his Administration. These Rules first appeared in a London news-paper about the beginning of the year 1774, and have several times since been introduced into the public prints. The minister alluded to is supposed to be the earl of H——h.

For the satisfaction of such of our readers as are unacquainted with Dr. Franklin's manner of writing, we shall present them with an extract from this ironical paper, as a specimen.

'An ancient sage valued himself upon this, that though he could not fiddle, he knew how to make a great city of a little one. The science that I, a modern simpleton, am about to communicate, is the very reverse.

'I address myself to all ministers who have the management of extensive dominions, which from their very greatness are become troublesome to govern—because the multiplicity of their affairs leaves no time for fiddling.

'I. In the first place, gentlemen, you are to consider, that a great empire, like a great cake, is most easily diminished at the edges. Turn your attention therefore first to your remotest provinces; that, as you get rid of them, the next may follow in order.

'II. That the possibility of this separation may always exist, take special care the provinces are never incorporated with the mother-country; that they do not enjoy the same common rights, the same privileges in commerce; and that they are governed by severer laws, all of your enacting, without allowing them any share in the choice of the legislators. By carefully making and preserving such distinctions, you will (to keep to my simile of the cake) act like a wise gingerbread-baker; who, to facilitate a division, cuts his dough half through in those places, where, when baked, he would have it broken to pieces.

'III. Those remote provinces have perhaps been acquired, purchased, or conquered, at the sole expence of the settlers their ancestors; without the aid of the mother-country. If this should happen to increase her strength, by their growing-numbers, ready to join in her wars; her commerce, by their growing demand for her manufactures; or her naval power, by greater employment for her ships and seamen, they may probably suppose some merit in this, and that it entitles them to some favour; you are therefore to forget it all, or resent it as if they had done you injury.—If they happen to be zealous whigs, friends of liberty, nurtured in Revolution principles; remember all that to their prejudice, and contrive to punish it; for such principles, after a revolution is thoroughly established, are of no more use; they are even odious and abominable,

'IV. How-

‘IV. However peaceably your colonies have submitted to your government, shewn their affection to your interests, and patiently borne their grievances; you are to suppose them always inclined to revolt, and treat them accordingly. Quarter troops among them, who by their insolence may provoke the rising of mobs, and by their bullets and bayonets suppress them. — By this means, like the husband who uses his wife ill from suspicion, you may in time convert your suspicions into realities.

‘V. Remote provinces must have governors and judges, to represent the royal person, and execute every where the delegated parts of his office and authority. You ministers know that much of the strength of government depends on the opinion of the people; and much of that opinion on the choice of rulers placed immediately over them. If you send them wise and good men for governors, who study the interest of the colonists, and advance their prosperity; they will think their king wise and good, and that he wishes the welfare of his subjects. If you send them learned and upright men for judges, they will think him a lover of justice. — This may attach your provinces more to his government. You are therefore to be careful who you recommend for those offices. — If you can find prodigals who have ruined their fortunes, broken gamesters or stock-jobbers; these may do well as governors; for they will probably be rapacious, and provoke the people by their extortion. Wrangling professors and pettyfogging lawyers too are not amiss; for they will be for ever disputing and quarrelling with their little parliaments. If withal they should be ignorant, wrong-headed and insolent, so much the better. — Attorneys clerks and Newgate solicitors will do for chief-justices, especially if they hold their places during your pleasure: — and all will contribute to impress those ideas of your government that are proper for a people you would wish to renounce it.

‘VI. To confirm these impressions, and strike them deeper, whenever the injured come to the capital with complaints of mal-administration, oppression, or injustice; punish such suitors with long delay, enormous expence, and a final judgment in favour of the oppressor. This will have an admirable effect every way. The trouble of future complaints will be prevented, and governors and judges will be encouraged to farther acts of oppression and injustice; and thence the people may become more disaffected, and at length desperate.

‘VII. When such governors have crammed their coffers, and made themselves so odious to the people that they can no longer remain among them with safety to their persons; recal and reward them with pensions. You may make them baronets too, if that respectable order should not think fit to resent it. All will contribute to encourage new governors in the same practice; and make the supreme government detestable.

‘VIII. If

• VIII. If when you are engaged in war, your colonies should vie in liberal aids of men and money against the common enemy, upon your simple requisition, and give far beyond their abilities,—reflect that a penny taken from them by your power, is more honourable to you than a pound presented by their benevolence; despise therefore their voluntary grants, and resolve to harass them with novel taxes.—They will probably complain to your parliament that they are taxed by a body in which they have no representative, and that this is contrary to common right. They will petition for redress. Let the parliament flout their claims, reject their petitions, refuse even to suffer the reading of them, and treat the petitioners with the utmost contempt.—Nothing can have a better effect in producing the alienation proposed; for though many can forgive injuries, none ever forgave contempt.

• IX. In laying these taxes, never regard the heavy burthens those remote people already undergo; in defending their own frontiers, supporting their own provincial government, making new roads, building bridges, churches, and other public edifices; which in old countries have been done to your hands, by your ancestors; but which occasion constant calls and demands on the purses of a new people.—Forget the restraint you lay on their trade for your own benefit, and the advantage a monopoly of this trade gives your exacting merchants. Think nothing of the wealth those merchants and your manufacturers acquire by the colony commerce; their increased ability thereby to pay taxes at home; their accumulating in the price of their commodities, most of those taxes, and so levying them from their consuming customers: all this, and the employment and support of thousands of your poor by the colonists, you are entirely to forget. But remember to make your arbitrary tax more grievous to your provinces, by public declarations importing that your power of taxing them has no limits, so that when you take from them without their consent a shilling in the pound, you have a clear right to the other nineteen. This will probably weaken every idea of security in their property, and convince them, that under such a government they have nothing they can call their own; which can scarce fail of producing the happiest consequences!

Intended Vindication and Offer from Congress to Parliament, in 1775.

Letter from Dr. Franklin to a Friend in England, on the Subject of the first Campaign made by the British Forces in America. This letter has been several times reprinted.

Letter from Lord Howe to Dr. Franklin, written in 1776, with the Answer,

Comparison of Great Britain and America as to Credit, in 1777. This paper was written, translated, printed, and circulated, after Dr. Franklin's arrival at the court of Paris, for the

the purpose of inducing foreigners to lend money to America in preference to Great Britain. What regard was paid to this comparison, by foreigners, it is easy to judge; but that our readers may see some of the arguments advanced by the Doctor, we insert the following extract:

‘ In borrowing money, a man’s credit depends on some or all of the following particulars.

‘ First, His known conduct respecting former loans, and his punctuality in discharging them.

‘ Secondly, His industry.

‘ Thirdly, His frugality.

‘ Fourthly, The amount and the certainty of his income, and the freedom of his estate from the incumbrances of prior debts.

‘ Fifthly, His well founded prospects of greater future ability, by the improvement of his estate in value, and by aids from others.

‘ Sixthly, His known prudence in managing his general affairs, and the advantage they will probably receive from the loan which he desires.

‘ Seventhly, His known probity and honest character, manifested by his voluntary discharge of his debts, which he could not have been legally compelled to pay.—The circumstances which give credit to an individual ought to, and will have, their weight upon the lenders of money to public bodies or nations.—If then we consider and compare Britain and America; these several particulars, upon the question, “ To which is it safest to lend money?” We shall find,

‘ 1. Respecting former loans; that America, which borrowed ten millions during the last war for the maintenance of her army of 25,000 men, and other charges; had faithfully discharged and paid that debt, and all her other debts, in 1772.—Whereas Britain, during those ten years of peace and profitable commerce, had made little or no reduction of her debt; but on the contrary, from time to time, diminished the hopes of her creditors, by a wanton diversion and misapplication of the sinking fund, destined for discharging it.

‘ 2. Respecting industry; every man [in America] is employed; the greater part in cultivating their own lands; the rest in handicrafts, navigation, and commerce. An idle man is a rarity; idleness and inutility are disgraceful.—In England, the number of that character is immense; fashion has spread it far and wide; hence the embarrassments of private fortunes, and the daily bankruptcies arising from an universal fondness for appearance and expensive pleasures; and hence, in some degree, the mismanagements of public business; for habits of business and ability in it, are acquired only by practice; and where universal dissipation, and the perpetual pursuits of amusement are the mode; the youth, educated in it, can rarely afterwards acquire



quire that patient attention and close application to affairs, which are so necessary to a statesman charged with the care of national welfare. Hence their frequent errors in policy; and hence the weariness at public councils, and backwardness in going to them; the constant unwillingness to engage in any measure that requires thought and consideration; and the readiness for postponing every new proposition; which postponing is therefore the only part of business that they come to be expert in, an expertness produced necessarily by so much daily practice. Whereas in America, men bred to close employment in their private affairs, attend with ease to those of the public, when engaged in them, and nothing fails through negligence.'

The fourth division contains papers on subjects of provincial politics. These are, first,

Report of the Committee of Aggrievances of the Assembly of Pennsylvania, in 1757.

To the Freemen of Pennsylvania, on the Subject of a particular Militia Bill, rejected by the Proprietor's Deputy or Governor, in 1764.

Remarks on a late Protest against the Appointment of Mr. Franklin as Agent for the Province of Pennsylvania.

Preface by a Member of the Pennsylvanian assembly (viz. Dr. Franklin) to the Speech of Joseph Galloway, Esq. one of the Members for Philadelphia County; in answer to the Speech of John Dickinson, Esq. delivered in the House of Assembly of the Province of Pennsylvania, May 24, 1764; on Occasion of a Petition drawn up by Order, and then under the Consideration of the House, praying his Majesty for a royal, in lieu of a proprietary Government.

The fifth division contains papers on miscellaneous subjects.

The first of these is a Scheme for a new Alphabet and reformed mode of spelling. In this plan, the Doctor proposes that the alphabet should have a more natural order, by beginning with the simple sounds formed by the breath, with none or very little help of the organs of articulation, and then advancing gradually to others, according to their arrangement in point of facility. This plan is accompanied with specimens of orthography, for which we must refer to the work.

On the Vis Inertiæ of Matter. In a letter, to Dr. Baxter,

'According to my promise (says the doctor) I send you in writing my observations on your book: you will be the better able to consider them; which I desire you to do at your leisure, and to set me right where I am wrong.

'I stumble at the threshold of the building, and therefore have not read farther. The author's vis inertiae essential to matter, upon which the whole work is founded, I have not been able to com-

comprehend. And I do not think he demonstrates at all clearly (at least to me he does not) that there is really such a propriety in matter.

Whatever may be the force of the reasoning in Mr. Barter's treatise, Dr. Franklin appears to have decided too precipitately concerning it; when he acknowledges that he had *stumbled at the threshold of the building*, and therefore had not read farther.

Next follow Experiments, Observations, and Facts, tending to support the Opinion of the Utility of long-pointed Rods, for securing Buildings from Damage by Strokes of Lightning.

The last article in the volume is, Suppositions and Conjectures towards forming a Hypothesis, for the Explanation of the Aurora Borealis; with notes upon it.

We have enumerated the several articles in this collection, more with the view of gratifying curiosity, than for any particular merit in the papers. The greater part of them, from the nature of the subjects, is uninteresting; and it seems to be only the temporary fame of the author that suspends those fugitive pieces from falling into utter oblivion. While this favourable circumstance subsists, they may be held in consideration by the friends of American independence; to whom their value will perhaps be increased by the portrait of Dr. Franklin, which the volume contains. This person seems to have adopted into his political conduct the same species of bold conjecture which he indulged in natural researches. The temerity of his projects is calculated to give them an air of greatness, and may even afford presumption of liberal motives, to which, it is possible, they have no pretensions: but whether those projects shall ever be realized, in the extent of Dr. Franklin's expectations, the experiment alone can determine.

*Russia; or, a complete Historical Account of all the Nations which compose that Empire. 2 vols. 8vo. 10s. in boards. Cadell.*

THE prodigious extent of the Russian empire, the great remoteness of many of its provinces, and the ungenial nature of their climates, have rendered it less interesting to the curiosity of travellers than any other country in Europe. This circumstance, however, gives additional value to such authentic information as can be procured on the subject. Upon whose authority rests the account delivered in those volumes we are not informed; but from the general similarity of the narrative, respecting the manners and customs of the people described, to those which have formerly been published, we

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must

must at least admit, that the author, or authors, have been actuated more with the desire of communicating true intelligence than of amusing their readers with hypothetical or fictitious details.

The work begins with an account of the Finnish nations. Besides the Finns properly so called, many other tribes, such as the Laplanders, Tschouvasches, Mordvines, Votiats, &c. are included under this denomination.

The Laplanders occupy the territory which reaches beyond the gulf of Bothnia to the north, between the western part of the North Sea, and the eastern part of the White Sea. Russian Lapland is said to be about a thousand versts \* in diameter, and yet contains no more than twelve hundred national families.

\* The Laplanders (we are told) are of a middling stature. They have generally a flattish face, fallen cheeks, dark grey eyes, thin beard, brown hair, are well-built, straight, and of a yellow complexion, occasioned by the weather, the smoke of their habitations, and their habitual filthiness. Their manner of life renders them hardy, agile, and supple; but, at the same time, much inclined to laziness. They have plain common sense, are peaceable, obedient to their superiors, not given to theft, not fickle, cheerful in company; but mistrustful, cheats in commerce, proud of their country and constitution, and have so high a notion of it and of themselves, that, when removed from the place of their nativity, they usually die of the nostalgia, or longing to return. Their women are short, complaisant, chaste, often well-made, and extremely nervous; which is also observable among the men, although more rarely. It frequently happens that a Lapland woman will faint away, or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a spark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noise, or the sudden sight of an uncommon object, though in its own nature not in the least alarming; in short, at the most trifling things imaginable. During these paroxysms of terror, they deal about blows with the first thing that presents itself; and, on coming to themselves, are utterly ignorant of all that has passed.

So general a disposition to nervous disorders, among a people unacquainted with all the delicacies of life, and who inhabit a cold country, may justly appear surprising; especially as they do not use the hot bath, so universal in Russia, but bathe in rivers every Saturday, which is with them the holiest day of the week.

The Tschouvasches inhabit along the two sides of the Volga, and appear to be considerable in number, as they pay a capi-

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\* A verst is little more than three quarters of an English mile.

tation tax at the rate of more than two hundred thousand heads. Marriage, among this people, is celebrated in the following manner.

‘The bride, covered with a veil, hides herself behind a screen; from which, after some time, she goes and walks round the eating room with a grave and solemn gait. Some young girls here bring her beer, honey, and bread; and when she has gone three times round the room, the bridegroom enters, snatches off her veil, kisses her, and changes rings with her. From this instant she bears the name of schourasnegher, or betrothed girl, in quality of which she distributes bread, honey, and beer, to the guests, with which they refresh themselves. She then returns behind the screen, where the married women put her on a ghonspou, or cap of a matron, handsomer and more adorned than that she wore before the betrothing.

‘In the evening, when the bride and bridegroom undress, the lady is obliged to pull off her husband’s boots. The next morning, they come to look for the Mosaiical proofs of virginity; when, if it appears that the bride had been deflowered before, a boy, who serves as a sort of paranymp, presents a mug filled with beer to one of the principal assistants. In the bottom of this mug is a hole which the lad stops with his finger, but draws it away when the other has the mug at his mouth; by which means the beer runs down his beard and bosom. This fails not to excite much laughter from the company, and a blush from the bride. But this terrible ceremony is never followed by any more serious consequences. The day after, the bride appears as mistress of the house, regales her friends, and they divert themselves better than the day before: they dance to the sound of the Russian balalaica, the dudu, &c. Such of the Tschouwaches as have been baptized, notwithstanding their profession of Christianity, observe constantly this national ceremonial, not neglecting, however, to subjoin the sacerdotal benediction of the church, though a long time, perhaps, after the marriage in their own way. The wedding is often held at the house of the bridegroom’s parents, and is a sort of club dinner, to which every guest brings his own share. Before the meal, a loaf is handed about with a hole in the top of it made, by an arrow; into this hole such of the guests as are so inclined put a few kopecks by way of present.’

The Mordvines are settled chiefly on the borders of the Oka and the Volga, in the governments of Nischnei-Novogrod, and Kasan, and are likewise a considerable people. They are distinguished into two principal tribes, namely, the Mokschanes and Essenes.

In this country, a widower always chooses to marry his sister-in-law whenever he can. If the parents will not consent to the match, he tries to slide into her hand under the

table a little loaf without being perceived; pronouncing at the same time, 'my sister-in-law shall be kept for me.' On saying this he runs out of the house as fast as possible. For if he be caught, he is immediately attacked by the company with blows, as hard as they can be laid on; but if he is alert enough to escape them, the fair-one belongs to him.

The Voriaks chiefly inhabit the province of Viatka; in the government of Kasan, and including those that dwell in the government of Orenburg, are a considerable nation. Notwithstanding their tenacious adherence to paganism, it was computed, that, in 1774, there were twenty-seven thousand two hundred and twenty-eight males, and twenty-seven thousand one hundred and sixty-nine females, who had been baptized in the government of Kasan alone. Such as profess Christianity live apart from the rest.

The nation of the Terpsyaires was formed about the middle of the sixteenth century, on the destruction of the Tartarian kingdom of Kasan by the conquests of the great duke, Ivan Wessillievitch. The people who then came to reside in the territory were parties from the Tscheremisses, the Tschouvasches, and the Voriaks, with several Tartars from the provinces lying round Mount Dural. The fugitives being of different tribes, the manners and customs of this people are extremely various.

The Vogouls inhabit the forests on the northern side of Mount Dural. Some authors are of opinion, that this people is of the same tribe with the Hungarians; founding their conjecture on the situation of the Vogoul territory, and the striking resemblance between the languages of the two nations.

The Ostiaks are distinguished into three tribes, viz. the Ostiaks who dwell along the borders of the river Yenisei; those who inhabit the environs of the Oby, and those who live upon the banks of the Ket. From the ruins of several cities, it appears that this people was anciently in a more flourishing state than at present.

• If an Ostiak is ordered to make oath concerning any matter in litigation before the public tribunal, he is made to stand upon a bear-skin, with a hatchet by his side, and a bit of bread in his hand, and he must pronounce these words: May the bear devour me; may the hatchet knock me on the head; may the bread choke me; if what I say be not true! They sometimes also swear upon their idols, and none of them are ever found to be perjured.

• All the Ostiaks on the borders of the river Oby are fishermen, and distinguish themselves in this employment by an un-

common address and dexterity; they know how to take advantage of all the changes that the waters undergo, and of all the passages and harbours of the fish. There are few that do not possess some rein-deer; many of them have even to the number of two hundred, which they employ for draught and household purposes. In winter they all turn hunters, but it is generally with very little success: they are neither active nor cunning enough for this exercise. They go six, and often ten, of them together, and thus traverse the deserts for five or six weeks; drawing after them sledges with frozen fish and other provisions. The bow is in greater use among them than fire-arms. In summer when they meet with the whelps of foxes they bring them home, and feed them with fish; and, when of a proper size, every fox pays for his board with his skin. They take such great care of these animals, that the women suckle them at their own breasts while they are very small. As they know that the skin of the fox is the better for the beast's being lean, they break one his legs some time before they intend to kill him, that the pain may cause him to lose his appetite, and so become thin. They keep a great number of large dogs for hunting and drawing sledges. Not one Ostiak among the whole race ever thinks of tilling the ground; they have neither horses, nor horned cattle, nor sheep.

The second volume contains an account of the Tartar nations. The first are those of Kasan and Orenburg. The Tartars of Kasan, as well as the other Mohammedan Tartars who live among them, take remarkable care in the education of their children, who are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and in the principles of their religion.

The Touralinzes inhabit a mountainous tract towards the eastern extremity of Oural, between the rivers Tauda and Isfet.

The religion of Mohammed (we are told) was heretofore that of the Tartars of Toura, as it is of the Tartar-citizens at present; but the Tartar-villagers were baptized in the years 1718, 1719, and 1720, by the care of Philotheus archbishop of Tobolsk. As their Mohammedan schools were suppressed at the same time, they have lost by degrees the arts of reading and writing; and it is very uncertain whether there be one amongst them at present capable of either. Their scattered huts together with their poverty have been great obstacles to their instruction by the Greek clergy, insomuch that almost all of them have wandered into the paths of ignorant and superstitious sectarists, who know not themselves what they ought to believe or do. Circumcision is no longer practised among them; neither do they any more eat horseflesh; yet, in conformity with the Mohammedans, they abhor pork, and the others sorts of food declared in their law to be unclean. They fast and keep meagre days sometimes by the precepts of one religion, and sometimes by those of the other.

At

At present no man is allowed to have any more than one wife at a time, when he marries without any hope of being able to part with her. The wife is bought after the manner of the Mobammedans, and they are to be obtained at a very reasonable price, because the people are poor, and because the monogamy to which they are bound leaves plenty of young women in readiness for husbands. The common price of a girl is between five and ten rubles, and those that have not so much money may have a wife at any time in exchange for a horse.

Next follows an account of the Tartars of Tobolsk; of Tomsk; the Nogayan Tartars. The latter is reckoned one of the most considerable hordes among the Tartar nations, and chiefly occupies the deserts on the northern side of the Euxine and the Caspian seas, and on the northern side of Mount Caucasus. Among this people, we are told, are Greeks, whose ancestors have dwelt in these parts from the earliest periods of history.

The narrative proceeds with an account of the Bougharians, the Bashkirians, the Mestscheraiks, the Barabinses; the Kirguisians, &c. The account delivered of each nation is perspicuous, and appears to be faithful. The work is ornamented with some plates; but contains no map of the Russian dominions, which doubtless is a defect.

*A Tour through Ireland. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Lowndes.*

WHEN Ireland lately became an object of much political speculation, it seems at the same time to have attracted more than ever the curiosity and attention of travellers. Notwithstanding the numerous advantages, and the beautiful scenes it enjoys from nature, it has, remained hitherto imperfectly known. But as it now begins to emerge from obscurity, we may expect to see the importance of it daily increase in the public esteem.

The first journey of this traveller is through the south-east part of the kingdom; and he sets out from Dublin by Stillorgan-park, where is a square obelisk of stone, upwards of an hundred feet in height. It stands on a rustic base, on each side of which is a double stair-case leading to a platform which encompasses the obelisk, whence is a fine view of the Bay of Dublin and the Irish channel.

We are afterwards entertained with the account of a natural cascade at Powerscourt, in the county of Wicklow; which, the author informs us, in terms bearing some resemblance to an Irish bull, is infinitely *superior* to *adequate* description. After visiting several other natural curiosities, and some towns, the traveller returns to Dublin, where having reposed himself a few days, he set out on a journey through part of the south and south-west counties. The first object he mentions

on this route is the tower at Clundalkin, four miles from Dublin. Several structures of this kind are found in different parts of the kingdom. By some antiquaries they are conjectured to have been watch-towers; by others, belfries, prisons for penitents, or pillars for the residence of anchorites. Among the places visited by the author on this excursion, are, Kildare, Castle-Dermot, Carlow, Leighlin, Kilkenny, Cork, &c. We shall here lay before our readers the author's opinion of bogs, which abound in Ireland.

‘The account that is generally given by the natives for the production of this vegetative kind of soil is erroneous, I believe, viz. that it is a mass of stuff that has grown from the fallen wood that originally grew here, thrown down by Noah's flood, or the Lord knows when; and by others, that they are derived from some peculiar boggy property of the waters that lodge amongst them.

‘That some of these boggy flats were once covered with woods, is highly probable, from the vast quantities of timber and roots of all kinds and sizes, particularly of fir, oak, and yew, that are found at the bottom of many of them, where the turf is taken away. But this is not universal; on the contrary, the most extensive bogs have the least of this timber at the bottom. It is universally observable, that the surface of these bogs is covered with a short, thick, and matted kind of heath, which undoubtedly, as it grows and thickens at the top, vegetate, at the bottom into a close and extremely radious texture, and which, from its low situation, in general, being replete with moisture, naturally throws out successive growths of this succeeding ramified heath, a great part of which dies and shatters upon every return of the winter, and moulders at the bottom, where it closes and forms another strata of mouldered heath, from which, in the spring, a new and successive shoot of heath is produced; and thus as these strata of mouldered heath are annually repeated, the inferior and internal vegetation of the roots increases and becomes extended higher, and at the bottom more consolidated; and this account seems confirmed by the appearance of the turf on the sides of the channel, where it has been dug, which is ever found of a closer and firmer texture, as they descend to the bottom of the bog.

‘I am the more confirmed in this theory of their derivation, from a circumstance universally observable, that the channels which are cut through those bogs, either for getting the turf, or for draining them, will, in a few years, fill up again, and by a vegetative process, like what I have described above, form their original production. The turf itself, as is very apparent from a close inspection, is nothing but a closely concerted and extremely fibrous combination of the roots of this heath, which universally grows on the surface of these bogs; and are far from being the produce of the fallen woods, which are frequently, indeed,  
but



but not always found at the bottom. I do not at all suppose that even the very first and original growth of this heath, at the bottom of the present bog, in any sense sprang from the fallen wood, its neighbouring substratum.

‘Wherever these woods were thrown down, by an inundation, which probably was the case, or otherwise, there was undoubtedly some quantity of earth washed down upon them from the adjacent hills, and declivities, the uncultivated surface of which, every where produces this kind of heath. This first covering of earth would naturally throw out the same kind of vegetable in the bottom, as in its former situation on the hills, and having by this descent into the flats, obtained a richer foundation, and being supplied with constant moisture, which before it often wanted, and, no doubt, greatly fertilized by the very trees and their mouldering leaves, and smaller branches, intermixed with this adventitious covering of earth, it would naturally throw out an extraordinary and more plentiful growth of this heath, and very probably a thicker, and, of course, a finer mat of it than any of the successive and superior growths would run into, and this the generally closer and finer texture of the turf at the bottom seems to confirm; not to mention that the very roots, from the constant moisture of their situation, and their fibrous texture, must be continually vegetating and thickening into a closer mass under the surface.

‘The same causes, in general, take place for producing these turf bogs even upon the tops, and on some of the very declivities of the hill, where they are frequently found: but it is ever in very moist, land-springy grounds, or in flats on the hills, where the water settles and supplies them with moisture. There seems, indeed, to be, in some degree, a kind of spongy quality in this heath, which prevents the moisture from sinking away from it, by an attraction of the fluids from the infinite number of capillary fibres, which are of the very component substance of this vegetative mass.—In this sense, and only in this sense, it is that the waters can be said to produce them, and not from any boggy quality in the water itself, as is pretended by some writers on this subject.

‘I can see no reason in the world for supposing any other natural tendency in them to produce these bogs of turf, or any other connection whatever with the effect, but the natural and universal property of fluids to encourage and support vegetation of every kind.

‘Tis observable, that very little, if any timber, is ever found at the bottom of these hills, or mountainous bogs; for they are frequently found in moist flats, on the tops of their very mountains; yet the turf is of the same kind, and only differs in goodness for fuel, from the different degrees of moisture with which it is supplied in different situations, the best turf being ever found where it has the most constant supply of moisture. In the larger and more extensive bogs, as in the bog of Allen, which

extends almost across the province of Leinster, there is very little timber found at the bottom, unless it be on the outskides, under the neighbouring hills.

‘It is very evident, therefore, that the timber, frequently found at the bottom of bogs in narrow vallies, much surrounded with hills and eminencies, is by no means the original of the superincumbent bog, or turf, though from the causes above-mentioned, it might help at first to fertilize the soil, and produce the more luxuriant growth of the heath; the capillary, fibrous roots of which, seem to constitute the very body and substance of the turf. From the preceding observations, I presume, it will be very natural and rational to conclude, that the turf, from top to bottom, is entirely the produce of vegetation from itself, in the manner, and by a vegetative process above described. And the reason why this kingdom, in particular, should exhibit such an extraordinary quantity of these turf bogs, is very evidently this, that the soil, by nature, is replete with the seeds of this bog heath, and, indeed, it is found almost all over the kingdom, high and low, where the lands are in their rude, uncultivated state, and it seems by nature, a vegetable inclined to flourish and increase where it has a constant supply of moisture, and its roots being extremely thick and fibrous, naturally attract and retain the moisture that by whatever causes gets among them.

‘Tis well known that the bogs in many places have risen several feet within the memory of man, and the filling, or rather growing up again of the channels cut to drain the water from some of them, is a proof that the whole is nothing but a vegetative produce of the heath, which, by a constant succession, or repletion of moisture, grows luxuriously, thickens into a mat above ground, shatters a very great part of it every winter, and a returning spring throws out a fresh crop from the mouldered substratum of the last year’s growth, and by such an annually repeated process, together with the very considerable, likewise, internal vegetation, and thickening of the fine roots amongst one another, the surface must necessarily become more and more elevated.’

From Dublin, whither the traveller also returns after this excursion, he again sets out on another journey, through the south-west, and part of the western counties. He soon arrives at Tarah, a place which, by a little poetical variation of its old name Teamor into Temora, has given title to one of the heroic poems of Ossian. This famous hill is situated about eighteen miles from Dublin. Here the monarch of Ireland, the provincial kings, and subordinate sovereigns, are said to have solemnly assembled to adjust rights, enact laws, and promulge them. The circular forts yet remain in which the chiefs used to pitch their tents, or to erect other temporary sheds; but there is not the smallest vestige of any stone building.

As

As the description of the manner in which the poor people in the county of Tipperary live, may be new to many of our readers, we shall present them with it.

‘The manner in which the poor of this country live, I cannot help calling beastly. For upon the same floor, and frequently without any partition, are lodged the husband and wife, the multitudinous brood of children, all huddled together upon straw or rushes, with the cow, the calf, the pig, and the horse, if they are rich enough to have one.

‘Their houses are of several sorts; but the most common is the sod-wall, as they call it. By sods you are to understand the grassy surface of the earth. Some build their houses of mud, others use stone without mortar, for two or three feet from the ground, and sod or mud for two or three on the top of that; their side-walls being seldom above five or six feet high.

Sometimes you may see an ingenious builder avail himself of the side of a ditch, which serves for a side-wall, and parallel thereto, he rears a wall in one or other of the modes I have described, as his own fancy, the facility of the method, or abundance of materials may lead him.

‘Another will improve upon this plan, and make the grip or fosse of the ditch, serve for the area of his habitation, by a little paring to widen the space; he being thus saved the labour of erecting side-walls, and having only the trouble to build his gables; for the which his prompt invention has a noble succedaneum in the hip roof.

‘Their mode of roofing is not less ingenious. They take the branches of a tree, the largest of which they use as principles and purlins, and the remainder they lay parallel to the principals, for support of a thin paring of the grassy surface of meadow ground, like the sods, only much broader, tougher, and thinner. These they call scraws, meaning to be sure scrowls, seeing they are rolled up in that form, as they are pared. With these however they cover the small branches or wattles, and over all they fasten a coat of straw, or, in default of straw, they cover with rushes or the haum of their beans and potatoes, and in mountainous tracts with heath.

‘Sometimes they have a hole in the roof to let out the smoke, and sometimes none. For to have a chimney, would be a luxury too great for the generality. The consequence is a house full of smoke, at least in the upper region, where it floats in thick clouds, the lower part being pretty clear of it. To avoid the acrimony of which you are obliged to stoop down, the poor man of the house immediately offers you a low stool, that you may be, what he calls, out of the smoke. And this is, probably, the only stool in the house; for the children nestle round the fire almost naked, with their toes in the ashes. Even the women, though not so naked, sit upon their hams in the same way. But in spite of their general adhesion to the ground,

the old people are, for the most part, blear-eyed, with pale and sooty faces.

'The only solace these miserable mortals have, is in matrimony, accordingly they all marry young. Most girls are, one way or another, mother at sixteen; and every house has shoals of children. Not that, I suppose, women are by nature more prolific here than in England, yet their early marriages, and necessary temperance, furnish more frequent instances of fecundity.'

Having visited a great number of beautiful villas, natural curiosities, and provincial towns, the author once more returns to Dublin, whence he soon proceeds, on his last tour, to the north-east, north, and western parts of the kingdom. The most remarkable natural objects mentioned in this tour, are, the mountain of Slieve-Donard, and Lough Neagh. The latter is the largest in Ireland. 'The perpendicular height of Slieve-Donard is calculated to be a thousand and fifty-six yards. On the summit of this mountain is said to have been buried St. Domangard, towards the close of the fifth century; and hither the Roman catholics of the neighbourhood annually resort on the 25th of June to pay their devotions.

'Here (says the author) are two rude edifices, (if they may be so termed) one a huge heap of stones piled up in a pyramidal figure, in which are formed several cavities, wherein the devotees shelter themselves in bad weather, while they hear mass; and in the centre of this heap is a cave, formed by broad flat stones, so disposed as to support each other without the help of cement. The other edifice is composed of many familiar stones, arranged into rude walls and partitions, called Chapels, and constituted perhaps the oratory and cell of St. Doman-gard.'

The traveller afterwards describes the Giant's Causeway, which has afforded so much subject for speculation both to antiquaries and the writers of natural history. This tour, like the three former, concludes with his return to Dublin.

The author insinuates, in the beginning of the Tour, that he is a native of Great Britain: whether he really be so, or a Hibernian, is of very little consequence; but that he is the latter, may perhaps be thought probable from the following passage, where, speaking of the cascade at Powerscourt, he says,

'At the very bottom of this sylvan amphitheatre, and in view from your first entrance into it, is seen one of the most beautiful water-falls in *Great Britain*.'

In general, however, the narrative is sufficiently accurate, and affords a distinct account of the most remarkable parts of Ireland.

*Biographia*

*Biographia Britannica ; or, the Lives of the most eminent Persons who have flourished in Great Britain and Ireland, from the earliest Ages to the Present Times. The Second Edition, with Corrections, Enlargements, and the Addition of new Lives. By Andrew Kippis, D. D. and F. S. A. with the Assistance of other Gentlemen. Vol. II. Folio. 11. 111. 6d. boards. Bathurst.*

**T**HERE is not perhaps in the English language, a work of more importance than the publication now before us. It contains an authentic account of the most eminent persons who have flourished in Great Britain and Ireland, from the earliest ages to the present time. It is a copious and valuable repository of historical and biographical learning : it exhibits a view of the rise and progress of the sciences in this kingdom ; and is a powerful incitement to literary excellence. The aspiring genius may look up to the *Biographia Britannica* as the Temple of Fame, in which, if he should merit such an honourable distinction, his name will be immortalized.

A page in one of these volumes is a more conspicuous, and a more desirable situation, than a niche or a corner in Westminster Abbey. There he will *probably* be surrounded by the sumptuous monuments and the lying inscriptions of sots, knaves, and cowards : here he will be placed among the most illustrious geniuses which this nation has produced.

We do not pretend to insinuate, that no insignificant characters are admitted into the *Biographia Britannica*. There are undoubtedly some which might have been omitted, without any loss. In the first edition the authors began their work on a plan which was, in some respects, too extensive ; including the lives of several obscure and worthless writers, merely because they found an account of them in Leland, Bale, Pits, Wood, or Tanner.

The gentlemen concerned in this edition will, it is presumed, be cautious with respect to the admission of saints, monks, and others, whose writings are deservedly forgotten : it is sufficient, if a short account of them are to be found in the *Lives of the Saints*, the *Martyrologies*, or the works of the above mentioned antiquaries. Such a caution is the more necessary, as many valuable productions sink into oblivion, in consequence of their prolixity.

The editors inform us, that this publication cannot be completed in less than nine volumes ; and it is probable that a supplement will be found necessary, before the design is finished.

In the Preface we have the following account of the original writers of the *Biographia Britannica*,

‘ We

• We are able to give a more accurate account of them than we formerly did \*. As was heretofore observed, Mr. Broughton's signature was T, Mr. Morant's C, Mr. Oldys's G, Dr. Nichols's P, and the two signatures of Dr. Campbell E and X. The articles marked R were not written, as we before thought, by Mr. Oldys, but by the Rev. Mr. Hinton, a clergyman, who lived in Red-Lion Square. Those signed H. were drawn up by Mr. Henry Brougham, of Took's Court, Chancery Lane, and those which have the letter D annexed to them, were composed by Mr. Harris of Dublin; the same Mr. Harris, we apprehend, who was the editor of Sir James Ware's works. There are a very few articles marked I and Z of the authors of which we are yet ignorant.

These signatures were, most of them, the initial letters of the names of the places where the authors then lived. Mr. Broughton was Reader of the Temple; Mr. Morant lived at Colchester; Mr. Oldys in Gray's-Inn; Dr. Nichols took the first letter of his christian name, Philip; Dr. Campbell lived in Exeter-Court, and his signatures were E. and X.—The articles marked H. have by others been ascribed to Mr. Hinton; and those which are signed with an R. have been attributed to Mr. Oldys, on a supposition that he sometimes marked them with the second letter in Gray's-Inn; but we are persuaded, that the foregoing account is more authentic.

The additions to this volume are very considerable. In fact, above a third part of it consists entirely of fresh matter; on which account the authors have not been able to proceed any farther than the life of bishop Bull. As this, at first view, may excite surprise in some readers, it may be observed, that B. is a letter which furnishes a larger number of names, and those of importance, than several other letters united: it took up no small space in the first edition of the *Biographia Britannica*; and though all the articles in the Great General Dictionary are comprised in less than ten volumes, the letter B is continued to the end of the third volume.

The new Lives in the present volume are those of Earl Bathurst, Andrew Baxter, Mary Beale, painter, Dr. George Benson, Bishop Berkeley, Juliana Berners, a learned lady in the fifteenth century, Dr. Berriman, Charles Bertheau, divine, Dr. Birch, Sir Richard Blackmore, Dr. Thomas Blackwell, John Bradby Blake, botanist, Henry Booth, earl of Warrington, William Borlase, Thomas Bott, William Bowyer, printer, Mark Alexander Boyd, Latin poet, John Boyle, earl of Cork and Orrery, Joseph Boyse, divine, Samuel Boyse, poetical writer, Dr. James Bradley, Sir Reginald Bray, James Brindley, Hugh Broughton, divine, William Browne, poet,

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\* See Crit. Rev. for Jan. 1779.

Simon Browne, divine, Isaac Hawkins Browne, poet, John Brown, divine, George Buchanan, and Eustace Budgell.

Besides these new lives, the editors have made additions to the greater part of the old articles.

When the reader finds in this volume an account of such persons as John Batmanson, Mary Beale, John Bekinsau, Richard Belgrave, John Belmeys, Benedict, abbot of Peterborough, Sebastian Benefield, and the like, he may probably ask, why no notice is taken of John Brompton, the historian, Sir Orlando Bridgeman, Edmund Bohun, Tom Brown, Bedford, author of the Scripture Chronology, Dr. Bundy, Bisse, author of the Beauty of Holiness, Dr. Bragge, Arch. Bower, Abel Boyer, Edward Brewwood, Anthony Blackwall, author of the celebrated Essay on the Sacred Classics, &c. ? To this question it may be said, that it is almost impossible to take notice of every author who has appeared with reputation in the republic of letters; that some may be omitted through inadvertency; others by design, as not sufficiently important; and others for want of sufficient information.

The following observations on the Life and Writings of Mrs. Behn may serve as an apology for the admission of other articles concerning writers whose moral characters are equally exceptionable.

The writer of the article Behn, in the General Dictionary, enters largely into her poetical character, and recites many testimonies of applause, which have been bestowed upon her in this respect. Most of his testimonies, however, are either from authors whose judgment is of little weight, or else are the encomiums of those who might be led to some undue praises of her, from personal acquaintance and friendship. The biographer himself, after all, though he allows her to have been a genius, will not grant that she was of the first or perhaps second rate; and we have seen that our learned predecessor has declared her poetry to be none of the best. If the writer of this note may be permitted to give his opinion on a subject which has not excited much of his attention, it is, that Mrs. Behn had great natural talents for poetry. My opinion is grounded on the only poetical piece of her's, which I remember to have read, and that is, a Voyage to the Island of Love. Having met with this, in a collection of poems, by the most celebrated English ladies, published, a few years ago, in two volumes 4mo, I was struck with the marks of genius, invention, and fire, with which, amidst many inaccuracies and worse faults, it undoubtedly abounds; and could not help assigning her a high rank among the female poets of Great Britain. But having since learned, from Langbaine, Oldys, and the General Dictionary, that the Voyage to the Island of Love was taken from a French author, I cannot tell what part of the praises it is intitled to, are separately

separately due to Mrs. Behn. The wit of her comedies seem to be generally acknowledged, and it is equally acknowledged, that they are very indecent; on which account I have not thought myself under any obligation to peruse them. It would have been an unworthy employment, nicely to estimate a wit, which, having been applied to the purposes of impiety and vice, ought not only to be held in the utmost detestation, but consigned, if possible, to eternal oblivion. It is some consolation to reflect, that Mrs. Behn's works are now little regarded, her novels excepted, which, we suppose, have still many readers among that unhappily too numerous a class of people who devour the trash of the circulating libraries. Mr. Pope's lines, relative to her dramatic writings, are well known:

'The stage how loosely does Astrea tread,

'Who fairly puts all characters to bed.'

'A gentleman, to whom we are under peculiar obligations, referring to these lines, observes that they contain a severe, but true, censure of our poetess, who, he thinks, scarcely deserved a nook in the *Biographia Britannica*. "To place her, says he, among wits and heroes, is like burying general F—— and general H—— in Westminster Abbey." But it may be answered, that Mrs. Behn's genius, adventures, and writings, gave her, whether justly or unjustly, such a celebrity in her time, that she could not be omitted in a work of this kind. Strictly virtuous characters we shall always treat of with singular pleasure, and shall select them as our favourite articles. But other persons must be recorded, whose abilities, productions, and actions rendered them famous in their day, though they were very deficient in moral qualities. Nor can the *Biographia* be confined, in the rigid sense of the terms, to wits and heroes: for, in that case, what would become of many sound divines, industrious philosophers, sagacious critics, faithful historians, learned antiquaries, and judicious lawyers? It may be added, that Mrs. Behn was undoubtedly a wit, though, to her indelible disgrace, her talents were prostituted to licentious purposes.'

'To the account of Benedict, abbot of Peterborough, Dr. K. subjoins the following remark.

'The severity of Bale's principles and temper, and his aversion to the monks, sometimes carried his representation of them to an excess. There was, however, in many cases, sufficient reason to expose their ignorance, their idleness, their superstitions, their frauds, and their debaucheries. The various evils that arose from the prevalence of the religious orders of the church of Rome, and from the multitude of monasteries and convents, will now be generally acknowledged; and we cannot sufficiently rejoice at the demolition of them, and the far superior advantages, in point of knowledge, civility, refinement, social happiness,



happiness, and religion which we now enjoy. At the same time, we may be permitted to look back with a philosophical eye, upon the collateral and occasional benefits that, in the ages of darkness and barbarity, were derived from monastic institutions; and to admire the wisdom and benevolence of that providence which hath educed good from ill. By the means of monasteries, the ancient languages and manuscripts were preserved; arts and learning, in a certain degree, maintained; and cultivation extended. This subject hath been discussed with equal ingenuity, elegance, and penetration, by Mrs. Barbauld; and it has been well illustrated by Mr. Warton, in respect to books and literature.

To the next article is added this natural and pathetic reflection:

‘ One cannot easily peruse the preceding catalogue of Dr. Benefield’s publications, without reflecting on the oblivion to which the works of many learned men are consigned. The writings of this once eminent scholar, disputant, and divine, are now, we believe, totally neglected. We do not recollect that they are held in estimation, or even much known, by those persons who value themselves on their regard for the old divinity. What a mortification would it have been to a number of diligent authors, who have risen early, and sitten up late, to promote the benefit of posterity, if they had foreseen that posterity would pay no attention to their labours! But such will ever be the case, when the studies of men are devoted to temporary, or comparatively trifling controversies, and when they write with a scholastic attachment to some prevailing system.’

It might have been some consolation to these writers, if they had foreseen, that their names would be transmitted to posterity in the *Biographia Britannica*.

Among other anecdotes relative to Dr. Bentley, the editors have given us the following account of his remaining works, from the information of Richard Cumberland, Esq. son to the bishop of Kilmore, and grandson to Dr. Bentley.

‘ Of the various important designs formed by Dr. Bentley, it is the most to be regretted, that he did not publish his intended edition of the Greek testament. What were the reasons why he did not give it to the world, we are not able particularly to say. If Dr. Middleton’s attack contributed to this event, he certainly did no little disservice to the cause of sacred literature. The completion of Dr. Bentley’s noble undertaking was the principal employment of the latter part of his life. He had collected and collated all the manuscripts of Europe to which access could be obtained. For this purpose, his nephew Thomas Bentley, LL. D. well known in the republic of letters, travelled thro’ Europe at his uncle’s expence. The work was of such magnitude, that he found it necessary, for the first time, to publish proposals

proposals for printing it by subscription. The whole was completed for publication, and he had received two thousand pounds in part of the subscription, all of which he returned to the subscribers, when he took the resolution of not letting it appear in the world during his own life. The work is now in the possession of his executor, Dr. Richard Bentley, one of the senior fellows of Trinity College, and rector of Nailstone near Ashby, in Leicestershire; and it is hoped that, at some future period, it may yet see the light.

Other valuable remains of Dr. Bentley are still in existence; some of which are in the hands of his executor, and some in those of Mr. Cumberland. The latter gentleman is possessed of the doctor's classic books, with his marginal notes. From these notes Mr. Cumberland hath published an edition of Lucan, which, though not perfect throughout, is full and complete with regard to the four first books. The same gentleman has a Homer of our great critic's, with many marginal notes and corrections, preparatory to an edition of it, which he intended to have given. Dr. Bentley's critical correspondence with his numerous literary acquaintance, which must be very instructive, and entertaining, is not only preserved, but designed to be laid before the public.

The subsequent observations, in defence of the Boylean Lectures, are rational and judicious.

Though the Boylean lecture is, a noble institution, and hath given occasion to many capital defences of our holy religion, doubts have, nevertheless, been raised with respect to its utility. In this view, Mr. Whiston hath related a somewhat remarkable circumstance concerning Dr. Bentley. That great critic demonstrated the being and providence of God, from Sir Isaac Newton's wonderful discoveries, to such a degree of satisfaction, that a club of sceptics or infidels themselves, who had heard Bentley's sermons, when they were asked what they had to say against them honestly owned, that they did not know what to say. But they added at the same time, "What is this to the fable of Jesus Christ?" This circumstance occasioned Dr. Bentley to doubt, whether he had not done harm to christianity by his sermons; as they might divert infidels from the denial of a God and providence, from which they might always be driven with great ease, to the picking up of objections against the Bible in general; which would afford them a much larger field for contradiction. The shrewd author of Christianity not founded on Argument hath laboured to fix some inconsistencies upon the Boylean lecture, and upon the excellent persons who, with so much success, have accomplished its design. Among such a number of writers, their reasonings will not, in every respect, and on every subject, be alike important and convincing. But, in general, the sermons at Mr. Boyle's lecture have done eminent service to the cause of natural and revealed religion, and constitute a system of evidence which no sophistry  
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or subtlety can overturn. The worthy and learned bishop of Carlisle observes, that Dr. Ibbot stands absolutely clear of all the exceptions urged in Christianity not founded on Argument; and that he hath fully answered the end of the great and good founder of the lecture. Dr. Ibbot was, undoubtedly, a most able, rational, and judicious defender of revelation. We have been sorry to see a slight word thrown out upon Mr. Boyle's institution, by a real friend to religion, and an author of a truly classic taste and elegance, with many of whose sagacious and sensible observations we shall hereafter find occasion to adorn our work. We mean the Rev. Mr. Knox, who, in his *Essays Moral and Literary*, thus expresses himself: "The sermons that have been preached at Boyle's lectures are some of the best argued in the English language. They have been the laboured productions of the most ingenious men. But the whole collection never did so much good as a single practical discourse of Tillotson." We do not wish to disparage Tillotson, or to lessen the excellency of sermons the object of which is practice, and not speculation. It is undoubted, that practical sermons ought chiefly to be introduced into the pulpit; and, perhaps, there has been an excess in making reasoning about the evidence of religion, and a vindication of it from objections, the subjects of common discourses. But it does not hence follow, that nothing of this kind is ever to take place. It does not hence follow, that such an institution as that of Mr. Boyle's may not have been of the most signal service. It is a fact, that the great principles of natural and revealed religion are not only disbelieved by many persons, but that they have been, and continue to be attacked, in one shape or other, by various writers. Ought not, therefore, these principles to be defended; and must not the defence of them contribute to increase the number of rational, firm, and well-informed believers? It is owing to the freedom and fulness of inquiry and discussion, that, amidst all our infidelity, there are, perhaps more christians upon conviction, among men of education and knowledge, in this kingdom, than in any other nation. In the countries, at least, where popery prevails, the true nature of religion is so buried in absurdity and superstition, and the propagation of its genuine doctrines so cramped by restraint and persecution, that the inhabitants are almost wholly divided into ignorant bigots, or determined infidels. This is happily not the case in England. It is to be lamented, that some late writers, with good intention, seem to want to bring us back to a kind of implicit faith. They ought, however, to consider, that in such an age as this, implicit faith will never restore the principles of religion. The principles of religion must be built on the basis of sober examination and rational conviction.

As a natural philosopher, Mr. Boyle did not aim at establishing any particular system. He was content to pursue the plan laid down by Lord Bacon; and in so doing, the progress he made

made in experimental science was very great. The superior discoveries which have since been attained ought not to lessen our opinion of his high merit; nor will it have that effect, in the mind of any judicious and enlarged inquirer into nature. That a single man should go so far, in so many different objects of pursuit, will be rather the matter of surprise. If Mr. Boyle had lived in the present age, he would have been inexpressibly delighted with the numerous and successful experiments which have lately been made with regard to electricity, and the various kinds and properties of air. He would have esteemed it an happiness to have existed at an æra when natural knowledge was making such rapid advances, and would have ardently united in accelerating these advances. At the same time, what would he have thought of a man, who, with considerable abilities and learning, could, in such a period as this, throw contempt on what he calls experimental philosophy, and say, that in ancient times, while philosophy flourished, Sir Isaac Newton would not have been dignified with the name of a philosopher? Such a man is the author of the treatise, recently published, intitled, 'Ancient Metaphysics.'

We have selected these extracts, not so much with a design to gratify the curiosity of the learned reader, in points of literary and historical information, as to give him a specimen of that candid and liberal spirit, that manly and judicious criticism, with which this great work appears to be conducted.

To this volume the editors have prefixed such additions and corrections of the articles included in the first volume, as have either occurred to themselves, or have been pointed out by others; and they propose to do the same as they proceed in their undertaking.

They have likewise prefixed a List of the Lives contained in the two volumes, with the years of each person's birth and death, which forms a very useful chronological table.

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*Sermons on the most Prevalent Vices. To which are added an Ordination Sermon, a Synod Sermon, and Two Sermons on a Future State. By the Rev. David Lamont. 8vo. 5s. 3d. in boards. Crowder.*

**T**HERE is no quality so graceful and becoming, or rather so essentially necessary, in the eloquence of the pulpit, as that of a natural and majestic simplicity. In the language of a sermon there should be no splendid or affected phrases, no glaring or fantastic images. The preacher is supposed to be delivering the serious and solemn truths of the gospel; and all rhetorical embellishments are below the dignity of his character. They are like flowers or feathers in the dress of a judge; which, instead of procuring him respect, are only calculated to make him ridiculous. This is the usual fault of young

young writers of a lively imagination, who are delighted with nothing but what is flowery or brilliant, and are perpetually running into metaphors, or similes, or elaborate descriptions.

The writer, whose Discourses we are now considering, has frequently indulged himself in these rhetorical flourishes.

We shall take the liberty to produce two or three passages, which are faulty in this respect, not so much with a design to censure the author, as to exemplify that false brilliancy which ought not to be admitted into discourses from the pulpit.

‘ If any man, says Mr. Lamont, indulges himself in the practice of any one vice—of evil speaking, for instance; that most notorious and damnable vice—it is clear as the light of the sun, that there is not one *scrap* of religion in his heart—but that all the pomp of his apparant virtues is nothing else but a beauty-wash, to give a gloss to his complexion—a painted outside, to conceal his internal deformity, a glittering display of shewy qualities to *gild the life with superficial splendor*—whilst the soul within is full of rottenness and *dead men's bones*, and totally void of that Christian sincerity which should be the moving spring of Christian conduct.’

In this glittering period the author is guilty of an unpardonable affectation, when he talks of ‘ life (an abstract idea) *gilded with superficial splendor*,’ and ‘ the soul filled with *dead men's bones*.’

Did we love our neighbours as ourselves,

‘ Happiness, says our author, would erect its throne upon earth; and misery, taking the wings of the morning, would fly to the uttermost parts of the sea; the heart of malevolence would be entirely *brake* [broken] and the habits of wickedness eternally annihilated. The spirit of harmony, emerging from the wrecks of disorder, would change the face of nature, and give life a new spring. Friendship, residing in every bosom, and reflected from every life, would convert the barren desert to a fruitful paradise, and make the vale of tears a sweet foretaste of heaven.’

Again,

‘ Adultery adds a new *sting* to calamity, gives a double *darkness* to the grave, and makes the prospects of futurity cheerless and desolate. For, by an express decree of the supreme Legislator, ‘*whoremongers and adulterers shall never inherit the kingdom of heaven*,’ or become inhabitants of that country, whose benevolence *ripens to unfading maturity*, purity *shines in its brightest meridian*, and regularity maintains an *unfading empire*.’

In this passage benevolence is considered as fruit, purity as a luminary, and regularity as an empress, which are images too much diversified for similar and congenial virtues.

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‘Revenge violently pulls the soul off its hinges, throws open the *flood-gates* of confusion, and finally completes the system of wretchedness. It is a *war*, where there is no peace, a *night*, where there is no day, a *storm*, where there is no calm. It discomposes the features of the mind, destroys tranquility of heart, disconcerts the operations of conscience, obstructs the exercise of benevolence, *eradicates the feelings* of humanity, and introduces the habits of ill nature, malice, and perverseness.’

Here the soul is absurdly represented under the image of a *door* or a *gate*; and revenge under that of a turbulent fellow, *pulling* it off its hinges, and opening the *flood-gates* of confusion. The latter is then immediately considered under the character of war, of the night, and of a storm. In reality, therefore, it is not like any thing in nature.

In another place, the author exhibits the soul under the figure of a duck or a goose in a common sewer :

‘Drunkenness *clouds* the understanding, weakens the judgment, *petrifies* the heart, *clips the wings* of the soul, and makes it *creep inglorious* through the *sinks* of debauchery.’

In the very next sentence he destroys this image, or throws it into inexplicable confusion.

‘Hereafter, this vice removes it from its *native source*, *intercepts the rays* of the divine favour, excludes it from the mansions of the blessed, and sinks it down to the pit of destruction.’

In order to suppress all emotions of pride, he says,

‘Amidst your gay moments of dissipation and mirth, sometimes cast an eye upon death; reflect that death kills the lily as well as the thistle, and buries the rose as well as the thorn; reflect, that the robes of the prince, and the rags of the peasant, are both laid up together in the wardrobe of the grave.’

Here, instead of representing death as an humiliating, or as a tremendous object, the author considers it as a trifle, employed in destroying lilies and thistles, and burying roses and thorns, and the grave as a wardrobe.

In the following passage the author's remark is unjust.

‘He who has too much learning, is, for the most part, as useless to the world as he who has too little, and often misses the heart by shooting over the head. He who would know every thing, will in effect know nothing; at least nothing to advantage. Great variety of books, like great variety of meats, serve only, first to pamper the appetite, and then to confound it.’

A man may be too pedantic, or too ostentatious of his knowledge, but it is impossible he can have too much learning. And he must have a weak head who is confounded by a ‘variety of books.’ Vossius, Scaliger, Fabricius, Le Clerc, &c.

who

who had an extraordinary share of learning, were not 'useless to the world,' nor perplexed reasoners, in proportion to the variety of books they had read, or the libraries they possessed. There can be no occasion to caution any one in the present age against too much learning; the error is on the opposite side; most men have too little.

The principal fault in this writer is a warm imagination, which cannot be satisfied with expressing ordinary sentiments in plain and ordinary language; but is always aiming at something that is supposed to be more elegant and sublime. For example:

'Let us all be persuaded to follow peace. It is a spirit of humanity; therefore let us follow it. It is a spirit attended with great advantage; therefore let us follow it. It is likewise a spirit of obedience; therefore let us follow it. Let us follow it, not partially, but universally. Have we friends? let us follow it with them. Have we relations? let us follow it with them. Have we acquaintances? let us follow it with them. Have we enemies? let us even follow it with them. Let us follow it with activity; let us follow it with resolution; let us follow it with perseverance. Happy man! to whom this rule applies\*: happy we! if it apply to us. Should our lot be cast in times of peril, and danger threaten us on every side; should disorder and convulsion seize the nations, and trumpets sound the alarms of war; into the asylum of peace we may retreat, and there find a happy shelter from the raging tempests. The billows of adversity, which drown a bad man in despair, disturb not the quiet of that man, whose heart is established in peace. But, as high Olympus rears his head above the clouds, and with a placid brow looks down upon the storm, and unmoved hears the roaring thunder, so the good man, who dwells in peace, raises his soul above the storms of mortality, and displays the brightness of heaven reflected from a countenance unclouded by the shades of misfortune. And even at last, when the body languishes, and feeble nature sinks in death, the spirit of peace will qualify the soul for the enjoyments of a country, where strife can never enter, but where harmony erects her everlasting throne. Amen.'

The subjects which the author treats of in this volume, are, Evil Speaking, the Debauchery of the Heart, Revenge, Idolatry, Covetousness, Lying, Swearing, Drunkenness, Pride, the Violation of the Sabbath, the Qualifications of a good Preacher, Unanimity, and a Future State.

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\* 'To whom this rule applies:' a Scotch phrase, or rather a barbarism.

*The Travels of Reason in Europe. Translated from the French of the Marquis Caraccioli. 12mo. 3s. Macgowan.*

THE particular design of this work is to point out the manners and customs of different countries, with the progress of the arts and sciences, not by way of dissertation, but by slight touches. The remarks are supposed to be made by Reason, under the name of Lucidor; who visits the several countries which are the subject of observation. The first excursion is to Turkey, where the traveller passes through frightful deserts, that seem to announce the wretchedness inseparable from those regions which groan under the oppressive government of an absolute lord.

‘ There Lucidor had an opportunity of seeing an innocent old man, whom despotism kept in chains. His name was Nabal, and, on some clandestine informations against him, (the particulars of which he never knew) he had been condemned, thirty years before, to live remote from his family, or rather from the whole world.

‘ The Sultan nevertheless looked upon himself as the most clear-sighted of Princes: but how can a man be undeceived, when he has no other counsellors than crafty courtiers, who encourage falsehood, and drive away truth. — Innocence has only one voice, Injustice has a thousand.

‘ Every body must have been moved to compassion at the sight of the venerable prisoner. Besides a beard as white as ivory, which gave him the appearance of Candour itself, he was continually lifting up his eyes to heaven, and conjured it, in the warmest manner, to pardon his accusers. “ All is for the best,” said he, “ and Providence has its designs in keeping me thus in captivity. I was in a brilliant post, which might at least have blinded me; here I have nothing to mind but my soul, which it is impossible to enchain. I raise it above this body, which you behold a captive, and lead it through spaces a thousand times more extensive than all Turkey.”

“ There is neither prison nor exile to an elevated soul,” replied Lucidor; “ walls fall down before a man who looks upon the earth as an atom, and attends only to his duty.” After quitting the virtuous Nabal, he spent above an hour in reflecting on the advantages of Wisdom, which is found in every climate.

“ Behold here a country,” said he, “ where, according to appearances, a man was likely to find nothing but ignorance and barbarism, and there I find a sage worthy to govern kings. A noble example this! Why is it not known to those proud enthusiasts, who imagine there is no merit to be found but in their own country?”

‘ Soon did Constantinople present itself to the eyes of our philosopher, but, though a ravishing spectacle, it only recalled to



to his mind all the massacres and horrors we read in history. The exploits of Constantine, and the shocking changes and revolutions brought about by Mahomet, were the only objects that fixed his attention.—A person that travels with reflection, joins the past to the present.

‘ Scarce had he got into the city, but he conformed to the manners of the inhabitants. He was not heard to make a jest of their customs, or to complain of their way of living. He contented himself with deploring, in secret, the slavery of the nation, and its ignorance, the consequence thereof, acknowledging at the same time, that the good sense of the Turks is less clouded, than that of men who read to excess.—We adopt the turn of mind of every body else, and lose our own, when we are for knowing every thing.

‘ The frightful manner of approaching the Sultan terrified him. He saw nothing, but a degradation of human nature, both in the abject behaviour of the subjects, and in the haughtiness of the sovereign.—“ These are statues,” said he to himself, “ and not thinking beings.”

‘ He perceived that the women, so worthy of being beloved for their wit and agreeable conversation, were dear to the Musulmans only on account of their beauty, and, in that, they offered an insult to the sex, instead of honouring it.

‘ This he understood from a Circassian damzel, who had been sacrificed to the passion of a Bashaw. “ I was (said this young creature, as beautiful as she was modest) taken away, when only eleven years old, to be the sport of all the capriciousness and madness of one of the most unaccountable and most cruel of men—He kisses me with caresses, he kills me with blows.”

‘ Pronouncing these words, she tore her hair, formed in beautiful tresses by the Graces themselves. She afterwards added, (while a few tears, less like tears than drops of dew, bedewed her vermillion cheeks) that, “ but for her misfortune, she had supported, by the labour of her hands, a mother, whom she valued more than life, and had preserved an innocence, which, she had been told, was of greater worth than all the treasures of the world.”—Virtue is the growth of every country.

‘ Lucidor, while deeply affected with this recital, raised her spirits, and assured her, that “ all the efforts of men could never make us contract guilt against our inclination; that sooner or later heaven would deliver her from her captivity.”

‘ The oracle was verified a few days after. The bashaw was strangled for acts of injustice, and the unfortunate Circassian set at liberty.

‘ Her first steps led her to Lucidor, who, instead of abusing her charms and misfortune, sent her off to her mother, after giving her a few pieces of gold, some advice relative to her situation, and recommending her to a captain who was ready to set sail.

‘ The ship was already at a distance, and there were seen, in the midst of the waves, hands whiter than alabaster, raised towards heavens, seeming to solicit it to pour down its gifts on so generous a benefactor—Gratitude is more than the work of the heart, than of education.

‘ Lucidor spent the day in relishing the pleasure which we always find in performing a good action, and the next day had a discourse with the vizir, on the polity and manners of the country. This minister, an able man, owned to him, that “some prejudices, which had taken root in the mind of the nation, hindered the government from preventing plagues and fires; that the softness, which enervated the troops, was the grave of bravery; that they dragged with them in the army a luxury incompatible with marches and combats; and that to make their officers good soldiers, either Prussian commanders must come and form them, or that they themselves must go and take lessons from foreigners.

“ War is not now carried on,” said he, “ as it was fifty years ago; and we have no other but the antient method; the sure way to be ever beaten.”

From Turkey the traveller proceeds to Russia, where he admires the wisdom and genius displayed in the new code of laws. But he apprehends that the people will carry too far the love of expence, and that luxury will at last impoverish the nation. This remark is applicable to every country where commerce is in a growing state. — He afterwards directs his course through Poland, Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, Germany, and the Netherlands, whence he passes over into England. As an extract from this part of the volume will best enable our readers to judge of the work, we shall lay before them the tenth chapter.

‘ England, according to the custom of the country, was all in an uproar. The dispute was about something relative to Mr. Wilkes, which in any other country would have made no noise, but which there raised a flame in the minds of all.—It is in some countries, as in the sky, where the smallest cloud sometimes brings on a storm.

‘ There is not a man in London, who has it not in his power to form a party, and excite a sedition, by bawling out, that “the laws are violated, and must be restored.”

‘ This is what the English call liberty, but it appeared to Lucidor an unbounded licentiousness. He could not conceive that the unhappy power of exciting a revolt could be considered as an advantage, and that the brutish behaviour of an insolent populace should be necessary to preserve the privileges of the nation.—There are phenomena in politics, as well as in nature.

‘ He conferred on this subject with several lords and gentlemen, and what they said was very sensible, though they were carried

carried away with the torrent of opinion like the rest.—No tree takes such deep root as prejudice.

‘ After spending several days in the examination of the constitution of the kingdom, he observed that in some circumstances the king had too much authority, in others not enough; that vice was the source of almost of all the debates; that the people confounded licentiousness with liberty, as being totally uninstructed with regard to so essential a point; that the great ones often affected to consider as patriotism, what was merely the effect of a spirit of cabal, and a love of some personal interest. But he was greatly pleased to see that the taxes never rose above the abilities of those on whom they were levied, and that every citizen was respected.

‘ He often dined with the English: they love eating and drinking, and during their meals (which last, at least, three hours, and are very humiliating, when the soul speaks not a word) he discoursed on the manners and customs of the country.—A man of knowledge turns every circumstance to his advantage.

‘ London, notwithstanding the pompous elogium its inhabitants bestow upon it, did not appear to our philosopher worthy to be compared with Paris. He saw nothing but houses that made no appearance, and rural walks without ornament. Whether it was his physiognomy, equally mild and majestic, or the plainness of his dress that imposed on the people, he was not insulted by the mob; he even received marks of respect.—The common people sometimes see pretty right.

‘ He was carried to St. Paul’s, which nothing but enthusiasm or ignorance can compare to St. Peter’s at Rome, though it be justly esteemed one of the finest buildings in Europe.

‘ England was no longer plentifully furnished with men of learning, as heretofore; they were to be sought out: this gave Lucidor concern. He wanted to know the cause of this, and thought he discovered it in the soft and sensual mode of life, which, at present, swallows up the generality of men, and degrades their being. Intemperance is the greatest enemy to science and genius. When people set down to table in the morning, the soul keeps abstinence the whole day.

‘ With a design to oblige our philosopher, he was brought acquainted with a person, who was said to be a man of great strength of reasoning. He sifted him to the bottom, and after a thorough examination, he found nothing in him but a deal of emptiness.—The human mind has certain bounds which it cannot pass; but unbelievers imagine that a man always thinks justly, when he thinks freely.

‘ The academies, universities, libraries, seemed to be in the centre of their own sphere, when placed, as they are, in the very heart of England. They recalled to his remembrance a number of great men, who have rendered that kingdom famous; and whose reputation will last while the sciences themselves subsist.

Lucidor was pressed to go to the play, but he had not the courage to stay to the end of any one piece. Their tragedy had something too shocking in it.—A person of the least delicacy does not like to see the passions in an undress.

The women in England, whose knowledge is greater than that of the sex any where else, often captivated his attention. They do not appear made for the spleen, they are so lively and talkative. The education which the mothers give their daughters contributes to this. They are brought up in great freedom, nor is the prudence of their conduct impaired by it.

He knew himself again in these sentiments of honour and probity, which characterize the English, and make them slaves to their word; but he wished those qualifications had been accompanied with a gracious and pleasing manner of conversation, without which the most respectable virtues lose a part of their lustre.

As they are particularly fond of a frank open disposition, it gave them no uneasiness, when he told them, "that it appeared to him a meanness in a nation, that had naturally an elevation of thought, to despise almost all other nations; to sometimes engage in war more through hatred than necessity; to allow a free circulation to a number of works full of invectives against the ministers and private individuals."

He added, "that they were too dependent on the common people ever to be free, which ought to convince them, that there is no government in the whole world without its inconveniences."—But when men have once adopted a system, they do not easily yield to evidence.

He was shewn some country seats really enchanting, where, to imitate the ruins of some of the ancient cities of Greece and Italy, buildings had been erected, which were afterwards blown up with gunpowder. Our traveller saw the famous Mr. Pitt (now Earl of Chatham) as an old friend, and they had a long discourse together on the present state of Europe. The conversation must have been interesting; it was a discourse between reason and one of her most zealous disciples.

There was in company, a nobleman of great knowledge and amiability, who was very merry on his own country, "We are as inconstant," said he, "as the element that surrounds us; we have nothing settled and permanent in us, but a fund of taciturnity, of which we divest ourselves with difficulty. We come to a city with a design to stay there six months, and we leave it the next day. This proceeds from a natural inquietude which torments us, and of which we are not masters, notwithstanding we are fanatically fond of liberty. We were formerly beloved for the sake of our money; but we have been so often cheated, that our oeconomy is now equal to our distrust."

"We would always be travelling, and yet in our excursions we generally see none but English. A ridiculous practice, which arises

arises from the prepossession we have in favour of ourselves, and from our fear of conversing with others. We love France, but we hate the French; we are at the trouble of learning their language, never to speak it. We value no country but our own, and can never stay in it; the women themselves go in quest of other regions, and quit their native soil. We are never worse than our word to others, though we are always on the watch, lest others should be so to us. We leave no debts or causes of complaint behind us; yet nobody regrets us, when we are gone. Our parting are as dry as meetings; and we leave to the sex the care of the tender feelings.

"We talk little, because we are continually told that women were made to chatter, and men to think. We take pleasure in reading, but both in our reading and our manners we give the preference to what is singular.

"We are humane only from a taste for heroism; and we love pleasure without knowing how to relish it. We seldom approve of any thing, except what has a resemblance to our own laws and manners; but we make no difficulty of conforming to the practices of other countries, though still with a desire that, either by the cut of our coat, or our manner of presenting ourselves, we should be known to the English.

"We are seldom flattered, when praised: elogiums in our eyes have always something mean in them.

"Patriotism is our passion, liberty our element; and we are looked on as enthusiasts in these two points, solely because we cannot bring others over to our way of thinking. There is ever something austere in us, which diminishes the merit of our sentiments and tastes.

"We are capable of the sublime sciences, though too much slaves to our own writers.

"We continue our friendship to the last period of life, but not till we are sure of a friend from a long succession of years; so that he often dies before he has gained our confidence."

"Lucidor acknowledged the exactness of the picture in several strokes, and left not London till he had done justice to the qualities of the inhabitants, who carry both virtue and vice to extremes."

Quitting England, Lucidor shapes his route for the southern countries, on which, particularly France and the Italian States, his observations are more numerous. — The author's design being to delineate the various nations of Europe in their most distinguishing features, the remarks appear sometimes to be made chiefly with the view of discrimination and novelty. They are frequently not only just but characteristic, and interspersed with short reflections, which, however, it must be acknowledged, often favour of affectation.

*The History of the Establishment of the Reformation of Religion in Scotland; by Gilbert Stuart, LL. D. 4to. 10s. 6d. Boards. Murray.*

**I**N the general histories which have been written of Scotland, the views of the authors did not permit them to be sufficiently circumstantial upon the subject of the reformation of religion in that country; and in those books which have been devoted to the church and its concerns, there is evidently an improper mixture of prejudice and controversy. With a view to remedy these defects, Dr. Stuart informs us, that he ventured to compose the present performance; and that it has been his earnest endeavour to exert and exercise that precision which is not usually expected from the general historian; and that impartiality which is never to be found in the apologist of a faction.

These are the objects which the author had in view, and, in our opinion, he has fully attained them. In a work like the present, which is confined to a particular nation, and meant to be purely historical, he has thought it sufficient to have alluded to the great and original causes of the reformation, in general terms. They are chiefly to be traced in the corruptions of the Romish church with regard to theology, to ecclesiastical forms, and to the manners of the clergy. But of the rise, progress, and establishment of the reformation in Scotland, he gives a full and circumstantial account; vouches the facts which form the links in the chain of his narration; and preserves throughout his performance the most perfect candour and impartiality.

The reformation in Scotland is not of importance to the interests of religion only; it was the effect and the cause of many political transactions, not only in that country but in England and in France. The actors in the scenes which led to that event were not obscure speculators, and recluse devotees, but persons who made a figure on the great theatre of the world. The historian who chooses for his subject one great event or transaction, possesses two advantages over those who write the history of a nation, or of any considerable portion of time. The connection of the events which he touches in his narration is more close and sensible; a circumstance which chiefly distinguishes history from poetry, and renders the latter species of composition the most affecting. The general historian runs over the scenes and actions he describes, with such rapidity, that we have not leisure to become acquainted with them, or to receive the impressions which might be produced from a circumstantial and minute description; but the judicious relater of a particular  
event

event commands our attention by a picturesque detail of circumstances, and thereby interests us more deeply in the scene and in the actors. Sallust did not possess greater powers of eloquence than Livy, yet the Conspiracy of Cataline, by the former historian, produces a more lively and lasting impression on the mind of the reader, than any equal portion of the Roman history by the latter. We are sensible of a similar effect in Dr. Stuart's History of the Reformation of Religion in Scotland: the perfect unity of the subject, and the judicious circumstantiality with which, on every important occasion, it is treated, conspire with a clear arrangement, and many just and even profound reflections on the nature of man and the spirit and genius of the civil constitution of Scotland, to afford a high degree of elegant and rational entertainment. In the observations with which this author has enriched his work, there is a conciseness, and sententious brevity, similar to that which we discover in the most approved Roman historians. His reflections are not collected and thrown together, in the form of a dissertation, like those of certain modern historians of great eminence, but are intermixed, like those of the ancients, and arise out of the subject. In this manner the uninterrupted narrative becomes at once instructive and agreeable. For example, Dr. Stuart does not think it sufficient to observe in general, that the persecution of the protestants defeated its own object; but he shews, without interrupting the narrative, *how* it was defeated.

‘A deed,’ says he, speaking of the martyrdom of Patrick Hamilton, abbot of Ferne, ‘so affecting from its novelty and in its circumstances, excited throughout the kingdom an universal curiosity and indignation. Minute and particular enquiries were made into the tenets of Mr. Hamilton. Men exercised their reason as well as their humanity. The doctrines of the church of Rome underwent a scrutiny, and were compared with those of the Reformation. The licentiousness of the prelates was contrasted with the austerity of the protestant teachers, and censured with a freedom of speech which filled them with the greatest displeasure.’

It was not the exercise of reason that first roused a spirit of opposition to popery. Reason itself was to be excited from that lethargic state in which it had long remained, by a principle more quick in its operation, and more forcible in its effects. There is not in the human mind a more powerful principle than a disposition to be affected by whatever is new and unusual. The novelty of Mr. Hamilton's suffering was accordingly, as Dr. Stuart justly observes, the first circumstance that struck the multitude. Another passion was inflamed, before reason exerted its

its slow power; indignation against cruelty. But repetition would have blunted the sense of novelty, and humanity would have been sacrificed to bigoted opinion, if men had not, thus awakened to reflection, exercised their reason as well as their compassion, compared the doctrines of the church of Rome with those of the Reformation, and contrasted the licentiousness of the prelates with the austerity of the protestant teachers.

Dr. Stuart possesses a very happy talent for drawing characters: From the various pictures of eminent personages with which this performance abounds, we shall select, as specimens of the author's abilities, and for the entertainment of our readers, the character of the lord James Stuart, afterwards regent of Scotland, and that of the queen dowager, mother of the celebrated Mary queen of Scots.

#### Character of the lord James Stuart.

' This illustrious man was the natural son of James V. by Margaret, the daughter of John lord Ereskine. He had been appointed, at an early age, to the priory of St. Andrews; but he possessed not that pacific mind, which, uninterested in the present world, delights to look to the future, and to busy itself in the indolent formalities of devotion. The activity of his nature compelled him to seek agitation and employment; the perturbed period in which he lived supplied him with scenes of action; and the eminence of his abilities displayed itself. He discovered a passion for liberty and a zeal for religion; and he distinguished himself by an openness and sincerity of carriage. These popular qualities pleased the Congregation, and procured to him their confidence. The love of liberty, however, was not, in him, the effect of patriotism, but of pride: his zeal for religion was a political virtue; and under the appearance of openness and sincerity, he could conceal more securely his purposes. Power was the idol which he worshipped; and he was ready to acquire it by methods the most criminal. He was bold, firm, and penetrating. His various mind fitted him alike for intrigue and for war. He was destined to flourish in the midst of difficulties. His sagacity enabled him to foresee dangers, his prudence to prepare for them, and his fortitude to surmount them. To his talents, his genius, and his resources, Scotland is indebted for the Reformation. But by this memorable achievement, he meant nothing more than to advance himself in the road to greatness. To this point all his actions were directed. It gave the limits to his generosity, which has been extolled as unbounded. His praise, his caresses, and his services, his dissimulation, his perfidiousness, and his enmities, were all sacrifices to ambition. And miscarriage, which has ravished so many laurels from great men, did not tarnish his glory. His success was so conspicuous, that he seemed to have the command of fortune.'

The death and character of the queen regent,

' Amidst this distress and inquietude, the queen dowager, waited



wasted with a lingering distemper, and with grief, expired in the castle of Edinburgh. Religious persecution, and a settled scheme to overturn the liberties of Scotland, while they rendered her administration odious and detestable, have obscured the lustre of her virtues. The treacherous views and policy of France serve to explain, but cannot excuse the wickedness of the counsels she embraced, and her uniform practices of dissimulation. She allowed herself to be overcome and directed by the obstinacy of the duke of Guise, the unprincipled refinements of the cardinal of Lorraine, and the imperiousness of both. Misfortunes to herself and to Scotland, were the cruel consequences of her facility and submission. If she had trusted to her own abilities, her government, it is probable, would have been distinguished by its popularity, and her name have been transmitted to posterity with unsullied honours. Humane and affectionate in her temper, it was naturally her wish to rule with a woman's gentleness. Her judgment was extensive, her mind vigorous. She could comprehend a system, and act upon it with undeviating exactness, and unshaken fortitude. The inclinations, character, and humours of her people, were fully known to her. She could accommodate herself with ease to the Scottish manners; and the winning graces of her demeanour gave an aid and assistance to her address and penetration. In distributing justice, she was impartial and severe; and in her court, she was careful to uphold the royal dignity. In private life, she was civil, amiable, and magnificent. The propension to gallantry which the example of her husband had promoted, was repressed by her decency and moderation. The excesses of that amorous monarch seem even to have induced her to adopt a more than common reserve and circumspection. Though a widow at an age when the soft passions have their full power, no suspicion was ever entertained of her chastity; and her maids of honour recommended themselves to her by modesty, piety, and virtue. Her various endowments, and the many excellent qualities which gave her distinction, excite a regret that she should have been disgraced so completely, by a frail obsequiousness to French counsels. Yet for this fatal error it is some compensation, that her repentance was severe and painful. A few days before her death, she invited to her the duke of Chatellerault, the lord James Stuart, and the earls of Argyle, Glencairn, and Marishal, to bid them a last adieu. She expressed to them her sorrow for the troubles of Scotland, and made it her earnest suit, that they would consult their constitutional liberties, by dismissing the French and English from their country; and that they would preserve a dutiful obedience to the queen their sovereign. She professed an unlimited forgiveness of all the injuries which had been done to her; and entreated their pardon for the offences she had committed against them. In token of her kindness and charity, she then embraced them by turns; and while the tear started in her eye, presented to them a cheerful and smiling aspect. Her soul, melting with tenderness, and divesting itself of its prejudices, weaknesses, and hatreds, seemed

seemed to anticipate the purity of a better world. After this interview, the short portion of life which remained to her was dedicated to religion; and that she might allure the Congregation to be compassionate to her popish subjects, and her French adherents, she flattered them, by calling John Willocks, one of the most popular of their preachers, to assist and comfort her by his exhortations and prayers. He made long discourses to her about the abominations of the mass; but she appears to have died in the communion of the Romish church; and her body being transported to France, was deposited in the monastery of St. Peter, at Rheims, in Champagne, where her sister Renée was an abbess.

It is remarkable that Dr. Stuart has not given the character of the most eminent actor in the scene he describes, the famous John Knox. Perhaps he thought, and justly, that the character of this singular person was better delineated by the appearances he makes in the History of the Reformation, than it could have been by any other powers of description. From the share he had in that important event, the reader will perceive that this man was formed by nature, in a rough mould, for rugged and arduous enterprizes; and that the circumstances of his life had a natural tendency to elevate his genius, to enlarge his views, and to strengthen and fix his resolution. The various important scenes in which he was called to act or to suffer, while they roused and agitated his passions, and exercised every faculty of his soul, taught him to consider himself as an instrument in the hand of Providence, devoted to the restoration of that pure and simple religion which had been preached in different parts of the world by the great apostle of the Gentiles, between whose life and his own he could not fail to remark a striking similarity. At one time, a slave in the galleys of France; at another called to take the charge of an infant church in foreign parts; again brought home to protect the Reformation in his native country, and to reprimand in person the rulers and princes of the land; he recognized, in this quick succession of events, the hand of a superior power, to whose great decisions he submitted himself, having equally taken leave of those motives of hope, fear, or tenderness, which usually influence the conduct of men. Such a person was well qualified to support the declining, and to raise the fallen spirits and faith of the Congregation, who, but for the contagious influence of his undaunted spirit, and the animation they derived from his persuasive eloquence, would have sunk, at different times, under the hand of oppression.

In the style of this composition, there is a degree both of dignity and propriety; yet we remark a few instances of affectation unworthy of such a writer as Dr. Stuart. We condemn such poetical phrases as the following, as being unsuitable

able to the gravity of history : ' Preferred to this *bad eminence*,', (a phrase in Milton's *Paradise lost*.) ' *The gloomy protestant walked over the ruins*,' &c.

The performance which we have thus reviewed cannot fail to suggest many reflections, arising from a comparison of the scenes and times it describes, and the present. One observation of Dr. Stuart's will appear particularly striking to the least attentive reader. ' The reformers,' says this writer, in conclusion, ' gave way to a liberal and resolute spirit, and taught the rulers of nations, that the obedience of the subject is the child of justice, and that men must be governed by their opinions and their reason.'

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*Some Observations on the Origin, Progress, and Method of treating the Atrabilious Temperament and Gout.* By William Grant, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

DR. Grant having already published his *Observations on* several acute diseases that are endemial in London, proceeds now to consider such chronic diseases as he finds to be likewise the most frequent.

In the first chapter the author treats of the Origin and Progress of the atrabilious temperament. He sets out with expressing an opinion, that such chronic distempers as do not immediately arise from the bad treatment of acute diseases, originate from some very remote cause, lurking in the constitution long before the disease is formed. Upon this principle he concludes, that the gout has its remote cause existing in the constitution many years before a fit ensues; and that to cure the disease the remote cause must be removed; without which a fit must occasionally return, so long as there remains in the constitution sufficient strength to form it.

Dr. Grant affirms, from his own observation, that the gout, and all the atrabilious diseases, abound among the people of fashion, all over the coast side of Britain and Ireland; in Holland, Flanders, and Normandy; in the city of Paris, and in all the great towns and cities of Europe, where people live much on the diseased flesh of pampered animals, fattened in stalls, without air or exercise, till they become foul, soft, and leucophlegmatic; but the labouring and common people, even here, are almost exempted from them.

From those facts Dr. Grant is induced to believe, that the gout arises from foul and luxurious eating, rather than from hard drinking; but chiefly when those vices are united, and exercise neglected,

' The true idea then (says our author) of the whole disease is, that people living in a thick, heavy air, eating the flesh of stall-

stall-fed and diseased animals, drinking spirituous and fermented liquors, indulging in ease, luxury, and excess, exhausted by heavy mental concerns, and overrated by the debilitating passions of grief, fear, lust, &c. are found liable to such an alteration in the size, shape, texture, and solidity of their organs, as to render them unfit for the natural functions. Hence a particular relaxation of all the solids; hence a peculiar morbid matter is engendered, producing a fever *sui generis*, which terminates by a singular sort of crisis, called a fit of the gout, i. e. a critical deposit on the ligaments of the joints, resembling a true phlegmon in the beginning, but issuing differently, and always returning again.

In the second chapter Dr. Grant treats of the proper method of rearing children, so as to prevent the atrabilious temperament; which is principally to be effected by a hardy and temperate manner of life.

The third chapter is employed on the simple method of curing the atrabilious temperament, when recent. The method is thus abridged by the author in a recapitulation, which concludes the treatise.

‘ He that means to cure the gout radically, and what I call *secundum artem*, must strictly observe the following rules :

‘ 1. He must quit the flat, fertile, cultivated plains, during the summer season, every year, and remove to the highest parts of the country, where the air is thin, pure, and piercing.

‘ 2. Learn to amuse himself with contrary diversions, so as to fatigue himself every day. Of these fishing and wading in the clear stream is the best, walking is next, riding is only a succedaneum, and a carriage is not equal to the intention.

‘ 3. Avoid populous towns and great cities, shun all occasions of anxiety, debilitating passions, noxious dissipations, exhausting pleasures, and heavy mental concerns, or intense thinking, even on agreeable subjects.

‘ 4. Keep to regular hours of exercise, eating, and sleeping; short sleep is best, on hard beds, in the early part of the night.

‘ 5. Let his apartments be large, lofty, ill-finished, and well warmed by strong fires.

‘ 6. He will soon feel the advantage of frequent bathing, much friction, and warm clothing.

‘ 7. His diet must be in proportion to his exercise, both in quality and quantity, but he must never quite satisfy his hunger at any time; in general it is proper to abstain from butter, fat, high-seasoned, salted, and smoked meats. Some forbid black flesh and pork, but I do not find much difference, so that the fat and skin are taken away; wild fowl and game of all kinds are proper, and so is fish without butter sauce.

‘ Animal food must not be used above once in the day; four days in the week he may eat meat, but never mix fish and flesh in the same day, far less in the same meal.

‘ Butter;

• Butter-milk, whey, fruit, greens, roots, seeds, bread, and dishes prepared from them, ought to constitute the greater part of his nourishment, especially during the summer and harvest. Tea and coffee, thin chocolate and cocoa agree with most people, mixed with milk, provided they did eat no butter along with them.

• 8. The best common drink is cold water, but when he takes animal food he may drink small beer, cyder, wine, or spirits very much diluted.

• 9. When he eats heartily at dinner, he ought to eat no supper, but suffer the stomach to be quite empty once in twenty-four hours.

• 10. He must be well rubbed all over every night and morning; and although I wish him to be warmly clothed, yet I think he ought to walk out in the open air as much as may be.

• 11. When he is quite free from all complaint, sea-bathing, or even cold-bathing, will agree with most people, to restore the strength.

• 12. But in all situations he must take care to keep his body regular, by taking sulphur at night, when he is coctive; and if he should be tormented with wandering pains, the aron-root and scurvy-grass will be of service to him.

• By such means as these, properly conducted, and steadily prosecuted for a length of time, a man of observation, by only attending to the *juvantia* and *ledentia* in his own constitution, will, in general, radically cure any recent gout, always moderate it, never injure his natural state of health, or shorten his life.

• I do not expect that it can be in the power of every one of my friends to observe all my directions literally; but it is my province to draw the line, and theirs to follow it as near as circumstances may permit, carefully observing what does, and what does not agree.

• This is of great importance, and cannot be reduced to any rule; every one must learn it from his own experience and observation, as the variety is very great: thus, *exempli gratia*, where honey agrees, it is one of the most salutary ingredients in diet, and formerly constituted no inconsiderable part of the *Materia Medica* of the ancients, but it operates like poison in some constitutions. One man's food is another man's poison. My worthy friend, the late professor Monro of Edinburgh, had experienced the good effect of honey for many years, till his constitution had undergone a great change by a severe fever, after which his stomach could not bear honey for some years.

• At last however he had a second fever, which rectified his constitution, and restored him once more to the use of honey, for which he was very thankful.

• Even the variety of tastes and disgusts is worthy of attention; *De gustibus non disputandum*; and Sydenham observes that, *ceteris paribus*, people often agree with what they are fond of.

Whatever objections may be made against the universal existence of an atrabilious temperament in constitutions disposed to the gout, the essay contains many judicious practical observations, and is so far divested of technical terms, as to be rendered intelligible to those who are not of the medical profession.

*Letters of Lord Lyttelton. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Bew.*

**T**HESE Letters, which are ascribed to the late lord Lyttelton, give us a much more favourable idea of that young nobleman, than the very indifferent collection of verses attributed to him, of which we gave an account in our last Review. 'That they were not written (as the editor observes) with the most distant idea of being offered to the world, will be evident to every reader; and though they may want the correctness and accuracy of prepared compositions, they possess that easy sincerity, and that open unboasting of sentiments which form the charm of epistolary correspondence.' — This, though the encomium of an editor, is saying much less (which very seldom happens) than the Letters deserve; as they carry with them throughout the marks of genius and taste, and tend to point out and elucidate the true character of the writer. We cannot read them without lamenting that a man possessed of such superior talents and abilities had not so conducted himself as to become as much the object of our love and esteem as he must be of our admiration; and that he did not live long enough to atone for his past errors by a total reformation, and entire change both of sentiment and manners, which he seems to have long had in view, and which, we are inclined to think, he really meant to have put in practice: 'but the world (as he observes in one of these letters) had marked him down for so much dissoluteness, as to doubt at all times of the sincerity of his repentance.' 'I have the resolution (says he) to make resolutions, but I cannot keep them, and to escape the misery brought on by one passion, I have so habituated myself to bathe in a branch of the same flood, that I cannot look for any other relief.'

He makes, however, in another letter, a better excuse for, and palliation of, his misconduct than any of his friends have hitherto suggested, and attributes it to what we believe was the principal cause of it, when he informs us that he was from a child the victim of vanity.

'Vanity (says he) is the foible of my family: every individual has a share of it for himself and for the rest; they are all equally vain of themselves, and of one another. It is not, however, an unamiable vanity: makes them happy, though it may sometimes

sometimes make them ridiculous; and it never did an injury to any-one but to me. I have every reason to load it with execration, and to curse the hour when this passion was concentrated to myself.

Being the only boy and hopes of the family, and having such an hereditary and collateral right to genius, talents, and virtue, (for this was the language held by certain persons at that time,) my earliest prattle was the subject of continual admiration: as I increased in years, I was encouraged in boldness, which partial fancy called manly confidence; while sallies of impertinence, for which I should have been scourged, were fondly considered as marks of an astonishing prematurity of abilities. As it happened, nature had not been a niggard to me; it is true, she has given me talents, but accompanied them with dispositions which demanded no common repressure and restraint, instead of liberty and encouragement: but this vanity had blinded the eyes not only of my relations, but also of their intimate connections; and, I suppose, such an hot-bed of flattery was never before used to spoil a mind, and to choak it with bad qualities, as was applied to mine. The late Lord Bath, Mrs. ———, and many others, have been guilty of administering fuel to the flame, and joined in the family incense to such an idol as myself. Thus was I nursed into a very early state of audacity; and being able, almost at all times, to get the laugh against a father, or an uncle, &c. I was not backward in giving such impertinent specimens of my ability. This is the history of that impudence which has been my bane, gave to my excesses such peculiar accompaniments, and caused those, who would not have hesitated to commit the offence, loudly to condemn the mode of its commission in me.

The glow and animation of spirited youth, just made happy in the possession of title, rank, and affluence, are not badly expressed in the beginning of the fifteenth letter.

And I awoke, and behold I was a Lord! It was no unpleasant transition, you will readily believe, from infernal dreams and an uneasy pillow; from insignificance and dereliction, to be a peer of Great Britain, with all the privileges attendant upon that character, and some little estate into the bargain. My sensations are very different from any I have experienced for some time past. My consequence, both internal and external, is already greatly elevated; and the empressment of the people about me is so suddenly increased as to be ridiculous. By heavens! my dear —, we are a very contemptible set of beings; and so on.

Without meaning any-thing so detestable as a pun, I shall certainly lord it over a few of those who have looked disdain at me. My coronet shall glitter scorn at them, and insult their low souls to the extreme of mortification. I have received a letter from —, that dirty parasite, full of condolence and congratulation with a my lord in every line, and your lordship in every period. I will make the rascal lick the dust; and, when

he has flattered me till his tongue is parched with lies, I will upbraid him with his treason, and turn my back upon him for ever.'

That this young nobleman had lively parts, and a ready apprehension, nobody, we believe, ever denied. It should appear from these Letters that he had also an excellent understanding, great discernment, and a thorough knowledge of men and manners; in proof of which we shall lay before our readers one of them which shews much solidity of judgment, and many very just ideas, with regard to wit, taste, and conversation; and which we have the rather selected, as it brings before us some well-known characters in the world of literature.

'Your string of modern wits (says my lord) is not worth a headsmen's rosary. The æra of wit is passed. There are not half a score of men in the kingdom who deserve that title; and the rising world give no hopes of its restoration. The tree that bears such fruit is blasted. Do me the favour, I beseech you, to distinguish between a man of wit, and one who makes you laugh. The repetition of an old tale, a grimace, a blunder, the act of laughter in another, or even a serious look, may cause that muscular convulsion; but wit is not levelled so much at the muscles as at the heart, and the latter will sometimes smile when there is not a single wrinkle upon the cheek. How it could ever enter into your head to think Chase Price a wit, puzzles and perplexes me. He has no more pretensions to it than he has to grace. He is a good-humoured, jolly buffoon, that writes a bawdy song, and sings it; says things that nobody but himself would chuse to say, and does things that nobody besides would chuse to do. Believe me, that Chase's fort is politics, not public, but private politics; the science of which he understands better, and practises with more success, than any man in Great Britain. He is never without a point in view, or a game to play; and he never sings a song, or tells a smutty tale, without some design. Mere amusement to himself or others is not Mr. Price's plan: his humour has been a good fortune to him; and he will contrive, I doubt not, to make it last as long as himself. Do you think, when Bolinbroke, Swift, Arbuthnot, Pope, &c. &c. were assembled together, that the conversation of such a bright constellation of men was like the ribaldry of Mr. Price. Their wit did not consist in roaring a bawdy catch, &c. it was the feast of reason, and the flow of soul. The flashes of imagination adorned and gave brilliance to the high discourse: wisdom was enlivened, and not wounded, by their wit; and, among them, the herd of laughter-loving fools would not have found a single grin to console them.— If I were to sing one of Mr. Price's ballads, or to repeat one of his stories, you would receive, I fear, but little pleasure from the exhibition, because I could not give the accompaniments of noise and grimace, which form their principal merit: and, perhaps,



perhaps, besides my deficiency in acting my part, I might produce the entertainment an hour too soon. But wit may be repeated by any one, at any time, and, I believe, in almost any language, with satisfaction and success: time may drown it in oblivion, but cannot alter its nature: as long as it is remembered it will please; while the facetious exhibitions of a boon companion will scarce survive his funeral.—But to proceed in your catalogue.

• Lord C——e's wit, as well as that of his friend, lies in his heels, and is so powerfully exerted in producing entre-chats, as to be languid to every other purpose. A few school-boy rhymes confer not the laurel of wit; and it was a great proof of an opposite character, in this nobleman, to give his compositions to the world. He may understand French and Italian, and, perhaps, speak both those languages tolerably well: it is probable, also, that he may not have forgot every thing he learned at school; but indeed, indeed, my friend, he is no wit.

• Charles Fox is highly gifted; his talents are of a very superior nature: and, in my opinion, Fitzpatrick is scarcely behind him: in the article of colloquial merit, he is, at least, his equal: but they neither of them possess that Attic character, which, while it corrects, gives strength to imagination, and, while it governs, gives dignity to wit. The late Earl of Bath, and Mr. Charles Townshend, were blessed with no inconsiderable share of it; and it is an intemperate vivacity of genius which confounds it in Mr. Edmund Burke. But the man who is in the most perfect possession of it, has figured in so high a line of public life, as to prevent the attention of mankind from leaving his greater qualities to consider his private and domestic character: I mean Lord Chatham, whose familiar conversation is only to be excelled by his public eloquence. Perhaps Lord Mansfield was born, if I may use the expression, with every Attic disposition; but the shackles of a law education and profession, and some other circumstances which I need not mention, have formalized, and, in some degree, repressed the brilliance of his genius. With respect to this great man, I cannot but pathetically apostrophize with Pope,

“How sweet an Ovid was in Murray lost!”

• George Selwyn is very superior to Chase Price, but very inferior to Charles Townshend, against whom, however, he used, as I am told, continually to get the laugh: but this proves nothing; for good-humoured George Bodens would have gained the prize from them both in the article of creating laughter. I may be wrong, perhaps, but it has ever appeared to me that Mr. Selwyn's faculty of repartee is mechanical, and arises more from habit than from genius. It would be a miserable business, indeed, if a man, who had been playing upon words for so many years, should not have attained the faculty of commanding them at his pleasure.

‘ B—— converses with elegance. L—— n is an excellent critic; and many others of the same class may be found who are well qualified to be members of a literary club, but no farther. Garrick is himself upon the stage, and an actor every-where else. Foote is a mimic every-where; excellent, delightful, on the theatre and in private society; but still a mimic. No one can take more pains than Mrs. —— to be surrounded with men of wit; she bribes, she pensions, she flatters, gives excellent dinners, is herself a very sensible woman, and of very pleasing manners; not young, indeed, but that is out of the question;—and, in spite of all these encouragements, which, one would think, might make wits spring out of the ground, the conversations of her house are too often critical and pedantic,—something between the dulness and the pertness of learning. They are perfectly chaste, and generally instructive; but a cool and quiet observer would sometimes laugh to see how difficult a matter it is for la belle presidente to give colour and life to her literary circles.’

All this is true, and the characters are well drawn, and well discriminated.

In another of these Letters we meet with a prediction of, and no unreasonable excuse for, that change of political conduct which took place just before his lordship's death, and which he attributes to the errors of administration.

‘ If (says he) by neglect, ignorance, or an indecisive spirit, the latter of which I rather suspect from them, they should let the monster grow up into size and strength, my support shall be changed into opposition, and all my powers exerted to remove men from a station to which they are unequal.—Remember this assertion,—preserve this letter,—and let it appear in judgment against me, if I err from my present declaration.’

After all that we have advanced in favour of these Letters, we must fairly acknowledge that we have some doubts whether they are the genuine productions of lord Lyttelton, or the work of some ingenious impostor; in that case we can only say, that the paste approaches so near in its lustre to the real diamond, that they cannot easily be distinguished from each other; and we are inclined to think, that if my lord were now alive, he would not wish to disown them.

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*Speech of Edmund Burke, Esq. on presenting to the House of Commons a Plan for the better Security of the Independance of Parliament, and the economical Reformation of the Civil and other Establishments. 8vo. 2s. sewed. Doddsley.*

**T**HE motion introduced with this Speech was not only of great importance to the public, but, to a number of individuals, one of the most interesting that occur in the journals of the British parliament. Its object was to procure an extra-

extraordinary change in the civil establishment; to abolish many places deemed useless and burdensome to the nation; to enforce a plan of *economy* in the expenditure of the revenue; and to limit the expences of the pension list; principally with the view of diminishing the influence of the crown in the two legislative assemblies. An innovation of such a nature and magnitude could not fail to excite a variety of emotions among those to whom the proposal was more immediately addressed. On the one hand it held forth to the nation a plan that seemed to be marked with the strongest impression of patriotism, and which afforded the prospect of no small security to public freedom; while, on the other, it offered violence, in numerous instances, to those private passions which exercise an almost uncontrollable power over the human heart. Highly plausible as was the project, and pure as might be the motives from which it flowed, yet the latter were not unequivocal, but admitted even of opposite constructions. Instead of public virtue, there might seem ground for suspicion that the intended reform proceeded only from the spirit of party; and conjecture might impute to malevolence or envy the proposed reduction of emoluments in which the author had not the fortune to share. Mr. Burke appears to have been fully conscious of the difficulties that accompanied this arduous undertaking; and he is therefore entitled to no small praise for the resolution with which he has surmounted them. For the satisfaction of such of our readers as have not seen the Speech, we shall lay before them the exordium.

‘ Mr. Speaker, I rise, in acquittal of my engagement to the house, in obedience to the strong and just requisition of my constituents, and, I am persuaded, in conformity to the unanimous wishes of the whole nation, to submit to the wisdom of parliament, “ A plan of reform in the constitution of several parts of the public *economy*.”

‘ I have endeavoured, that this plan should include in its execution, a considerable reduction of improper expence; that, it should effect a conversion of unprofitable titles into a productive estate; that, it should lead to, and indeed almost compel, a provident administration of such sums of public money as must remain under discretionary trusts; that, it should render the incurring debts on the civil establishments (which must ultimately affect national strength and national credit) so very difficult, as to become next to impracticable.

‘ But what, I confess, was uppermost with me, what I bent the whole force of my mind to, was the reduction of that corrupt influence, which is itself the perennial spring of all prodigality, and of all disorder; which loads us, more than millions of debt; which takes away vigour from our arms, wisdom from our councils, and every shadow of authority and credit from the most venerable parts of our constitution.

‘ Sir, I assure you, very solemnly, and with a very clear conscience, that nothing in the world has led me to such an undertaking,

taking, but my zeal for the honour of this house, and the settled, habitual, systematic affection I bear to the cause, and to the principles of government.

I enter perfectly into the nature and consequences of my attempt; and I advance to it with a tremor that shakes me to the inmost fibre of my frame. I feel, that I engage in a business, in itself most ungracious, totally wide of the course of prudent conduct; and I really think, the most completely adverse that can be imagined, to the natural turn and temper of my own mind. I know, that all parsimony is of a quality approaching to unkindness; and that (on some person or other) every reform must operate as a sort of punishment. Indeed the whole class of the severe and restrictive virtues, are at a market almost too high for humanity. What is worse, there are very few of those virtues which are not capable of being imitated, and even outdone in many of their most striking effects, by the worst of vices. Malignity and envy will carve much more deeply, and finish much more sharply, in the work of retrenchment, than frugality and providence. I do not, therefore, wonder that gentlemen have kept away from such a task, as well from good nature as from prudence. Private feeling might, indeed, be overborne by legislative reason; and a man of a long-sighted and strong-nerved humanity, might bring himself, not so much to consider from whom he takes superfluous enjoyment, as for whom in the end he may preserve the absolute necessities of life.

But it is much more easy to reconcile this measure to humanity, than to bring it to any agreement with prudence. I do not mean that little, selfish, pitiful, bastard thing, which sometimes goes by the name of a family in which it is not legitimate, and to which it is a disgrace;—I mean even that public and enlarged prudence, which, apprehensive of being disabled from rendering acceptable services to the world, withholds itself from those that are invidious. Gentlemen who are, with me, verging towards the decline of life, and are apt to form their ideas of kings from kings of former times, might dread the anger of a reigning prince;—they who are more provident of the future, or by being young are more interested in it, might tremble at the resentment of the successor; they might see a long, dull, dreary, unvaried vista of despair and exclusion, for half a century, before them. This is no pleasant prospect at the outset of a political journey.

Besides this, Sir, the private enemies to be made in all attempts of this kind, are innumerable; and their enmity will be the more bitter, and the more dangerous too, because a sense of dignity will oblige them to conceal the cause of their resentment. Very few men of great families and extensive connections, but will feel the smart of a cutting reform, in some close relation, some bosom friend, some pleasant acquaintance, some dear protected dependant. Emolument is taken from some; patronage from others; objects of pursuit from all. Men, forced into an involuntary independence, will abhor the authors of a blessing which in their eyes has so very near a resemblance to a curse. When officers are removed, and the offices remain; you may set the gratitude of some against the anger of others; you may oppose the friends you oblige against the enemies you provoke. But services of the present sort create no attachments. The individual good felt in a public benefit, is comparatively so small, comes round through such an involved labyrinth of intricate and tedious revolutions; whilst a present personal

personal detriment is so heavy where it falls, and so instant in its operation, that the cold commendation of a public advantage never was, and never will be, a match for the quick sensibility of a private loss; and you may depend upon it, Sir, that when many people have an interest in railing, sooner or later, they will bring a considerable degree of unpopularity upon any measure. So that, for the present at least, the reformation will operate against the reformers; and revenge (as against them at the least) will produce all the effects of corruption.

This, Sir, is almost always the case, where the plan has complete success. But how stands the matter in the mere attempt? Nothing, you know, is more common, than for men to wish, and call loudly for, a reformation, who, when it arrives, do by no means like the severity of its aspect. Reformation is one of these pieces which must be put at some distance in order to please. Its greatest favourers love it better in the abstract than in the substance. When any old prejudice of their own, or any interest that they value, is touched, they become scrupulous, they become captious, and every man has his separate exception. Some pluck out the black hairs, some the grey; one point must be given up to one; another point must be yielded to another; nothing is suffered to prevail upon its own principle: the whole is so frittered down, and disjointed, that scarcely a trace of the original scheme remains! Thus, between the resistance of power, and the unsystematical process of popularity, the undertaker and the undertaking are both exposed, and the poor reformer is hissed off the stage, both by friends and foes.

The author afterwards gives an account of some regulations said to have been lately adopted in the management of the revenues of France, and he strongly urges the propriety of following so salutary an example. In order effectually to accomplish a reform, Mr. Burke acquaints us that he took an extensive survey of this country, in its jurisdictions, estates, and establishments, in all which he discovered essential vices, absurdities, and defects. That he might proceed systematically in the intended plan, he reduced it to seven principles, on which all the regulations should be founded.—These are,

First, That all jurisdictions which furnish more matter of expence, more temptation to oppression, or more means and instruments of corrupt influence, than advantage to justice or political administration, ought to be abolished.

Secondly, That all public estates which are more subservient to the purposes of vexing, over-awing, and influencing those who hold under them, and to the expence of perception and management, than of benefit to the revenue, ought, upon every principle, both of revenue and of freedom, to be disposed of.

Thirdly, That all offices which bring more charge than proportional advantage to the state; that all offices which may be engrafted on others; uniting and simplifying their duties, ought, in the first case, to be taken away; and in the second, to be consolidated.

Fourthly, That all such offices ought to be abolished as obstruct the prospect of the general superintendant of finance; which destroy his superintendancy, which disable him from foreseeing and providing

ing for charges as they may occur; from preventing expence in its origin, checking it in its progress, or securing its application to its proper purposes. A minister under whom expences can be made without his knowledge, can never say what it is that he can spend or what it is that he can save.

• Fifthly, That it is proper to establish an invariable order in all payments; which will prevent partiality; which will give preferences to services, not according to the importunity of the demandant, but the rank and order of their utility or their justice.

• Sixthly, That it is right to reduce every establishment, and every part of an establishment (as nearly as possible) to certainty, the life of all order and good management.

• Seventhly, That all subordinate treasuries, as the nurseries of mismanagement, and as naturally drawing to themselves as much money as they can, keeping it as long as they can, and accounting for it as late as they can, ought to be dissolved. They have a tendency to perplex and distract the public accounts, and to excite a suspicion of government, even beyond the extent of their abuse.

Having laid down those general rules of conduct, Mr. Burke next applies them to the various departments in the state, which are the objects of his consideration. His attention is first bestowed on the jurisdictions; and in exposing the impropriety of those establishments, he has recourse to a pleasant strain of ridicule.

• First (says he) with regard to the sovereign jurisdictions, I must observe, Sir, that whoever takes a view of this kingdom in a cursory manner, will imagine, that he beholds a solid, compacted, uniform system of monarchy; in which all inferior jurisdictions are but as rays diverging from one center. But on examining it more nearly, you find much excentricity and confusion. It is not a monarchy in strictness. But, as in the Saxon times this country was an heptarchy, it is now a strange sort of Pentarchy. It is divided into five several distinct principalities, besides the supreme. There is indeed this difference from the Saxon times, that as in the itinerant exhibitions of the stage, for want of a complete company, they are obliged to cast a variety of parts on their chief performer; so our sovereign condescends himself to act, not only the principal, but all the subordinate parts in the play. He condescends to dissipate the royal character, and to trifle with those light, subordinate, lacerated sceptres, in those hands that sustain the ball representing the world, or which wield the trident that commands the ocean. Cross a brook, and you lose the king of England; but you have some comfort in coming again under his majesty, though "thorn of his beams," and no more than prince of Wales. Go to the north, and you find him dwindled to a Duke of Lancaster; turn to the west of that north, and he pops upon you in the humble character of Earl of Chester. Travel a few miles on, the Earl of Chester disappears; and the king surprises you again as Count Palatine of Lancaster. If you travel beyond Mount Edgecombe, you find him once more in his incognito, and he is Duke of Cornwall. So that, quite fatigued and satiated with this dull variety, you are infinitely refreshed when you return to the sphere of this proper splendor, and behold your amiable sovereign in his true, simple, undisguised native character of majesty.

• In

\* In every one of these five Principalities, Dutchies, Palatinates, there is a regular establishment of considerable expence, and most domineering influence. As his majesty submits to appear in this state of subordination to himself, so his loyal peers and faithful commons attend his royal transformations; and are not so nice as to refuse to nibble at these crumbs of emoluments, which console their petty metamorphoses. Thus every one of these principalities has the apparatus of a kingdom, for the jurisdiction over a few private estates; and the formality and charge of the exchequer of Great Britain, for collecting the rents of a country squire. Cornwall is the best of them; but when you compare the charge with the receipt, you will find that it furnishes no exception to the general rule. The dutchy and county palatine of Lancaster do not yield, as I have reason to believe, on an average of twenty years, four thousand pounds a year, clear to the crown. As to Wales, and the county palatine of Chester, I have my doubts, whether their productive exchequer yields any returns at all. Yet one may say, that this revenue is more faithfully applied to its purposes than any of the rest; as it exists for the sole purpose of multiplying offices, and extending influence.

\* An attempt was lately made to improve this branch of local influence, and to transfer it to the fund of general corruption. I have on the seat behind me, the constitution of Mr. John Probert; a knight-errant, dubbed by the noble lord in the blue ribbon, and sent to search for revenues and adventures upon the mountains of Wales. The commission is remarkable; and the event not less so. The commission sets forth, that "upon a report of the deputy-auditor (for there is a deputy auditor) of the principality of Wales, it appeared, that his majesty's land-revenues in the said principality, are greatly diminished;" and "that upon a report of the surveyor general of his majesty's land revenues, upon a memorial of the auditor of his majesty's revenues within the said principality, that his mines and forests have produced very little profit either to the public revenue or to individuals;"—and therefore they appoint Mr. Probert, with a pension of three hundred pounds a year from the said principality, to try whether he can make any thing more of that very little which is stated to be so greatly diminished. "A beggarly account of empty boxes." And yet, Sir, you will remark—that this diminution from littleness (which serves only to prove the infinite divisibility of matter) was not for want of the tender and officious care (as we see) of surveyors general, and surveyors particular; of auditors and deputy-auditors; not for want of memorials, and remonstrances, and reports, and commissions, and constitutions, and inquisitions, and pensions.

\* Probert, thus armed, and accoutred,—and paid, proceeded on his adventure;—but he was no sooner arrived on the confines of Wales, than all Wales was in arms to meet him. That nation is brave, and full of spirit. Since the invasion of king Edward, and the massacre of the bards, there never was such a tumult, and alarm, and uproar, through the regions of Prestatyn. Snowdon shook to its base; Cader Idris was loosened from its foundations. The fury of litigious war blew her horn on the mountains. The rocks poured down their goatherds, and the deep caverns vomited out their miners. Every thing above ground, and every thing under ground, was in arms.

\* In short, Sir, to alight from my Welsh Pegasus, and to come to

to level ground; the *Peaux Chevalier* Probert went to look for revenue, like his masters upon other occasions; and like his masters, he found rebellion. But we were grown cautious by experience. A civil war of paper might end in a more serious war; for now remonstrance met remonstrance, and memorial was opposed to memorial. In truth, Sir, the attempt was no less an affront upon the understanding of that respectable people, than it was an attack on their property. The wise Britons thought it more reasonable, that the poor, wasted, decrepit, revenue of the principality, should die a natural than a violent death. They chose that their ancient moss-grown castles, should moulder into decay, under the silent touches of time, and the slow formality of an oblivious and drowsy exchequer, than that they should be battered down all at once, by the lively efforts of a pensioned engineer. As it is the fortune of the noble lord to whom the auspices of this campaign belonged, frequently to provoke resistance, so it is his rule and his nature to yield to that resistance in all cases whatsoever. He was true to himself on this occasion. He submitted with spirit to the spirited remonstrances of the Welsh. Mr. Probert gave up his adventure, and keeps his pension.—and so ends “the famous history of the revenue adventures of the bold Baron North, and the good Knight Probert, upon the mountains of Venodotia”

\* In such a state is the exchequer of Wales at present, that, upon the report of the treasury itself, its little revenue is greatly diminished; and we see by the whole of this strange transaction, that an attempt to improve it, produces resistance; the resistance produces submission; and the whole ends in pension.\*

From Wales the author proceeds to the duchy and county palatine of Lancaster, Chester, &c. the constitutions of which he reprobates with just and forcible arguments. He proposes to unite all the five principalities to the crown, and to its ordinary jurisdiction; to abolish all those offices that produce a useless and chargeable separation from the body of the people; to compensate those who do not hold their offices (if any such there are) at the pleasure of the crown; to extinguish vexatious titles by an act of short limitation; to sell those unprofitable estates which support useless jurisdictions; and to turn the tenant-right into a fee, on such terms as will be better for the state than its present right.

In respect of the forest lands, he proposes that they should be sold for the public benefit; that what timber is useless for the naval purposes of the kingdom, may also be sold; and that such parts of the forests may be enclosed, as are most likely to afford a constant supply.

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\* Here Lord North shook his head, and told those who sat near him, that Mr. Probert's pension was to depend on his success. It may be so. Mr. Probert's pension was, however, no essential part of the question; nor did Mr. B. care whether he still possessed it or not. His point was, to shew the ridicule of attempting an improvement of the Welsh revenue under its present establishment.

After



After regulating the provincial jurisdictions, and settling the disposal of the royal forests, the political reformer proceeds to the next part of his plan, containing the proposed alterations in the civil establishment. He begins with new-modelling the royal household, the present regulations in which he highly censures, as being formed, in many respects, upon feudal principles, that have no longer any existence in the state. For determining whether the alterations should be conducted by detail, or by principle, he introduces the following facts, and humorous observations.

At the beginning of his majesty's reign, lord Talbot came to the administration of a great department in the household, I believe no man ever entered into his majesty's service, or into the service of any prince, with a more clear integrity, or with more zeal and affection for the interest of his master; and I must add, with abilities for a still higher service. Oeconomy was then announced as a maxim of the reign. This noble lord, therefore, made several attempts towards a reform. In the year 1777, when the king's civil list debts came last to be paid, he explained very fully the success of his undertaking. He told the house of lords, that he had attempted to reduce the charges of the king's tables, and his kitchen. — The thing, Sir, was not below him. He knew, that there is nothing interesting in the concerns of men, whom we love and honour, that is beneath our attention. — "Love," says one of our old poets, "esteems no office mean;" and with still more spirit, "Entire affection scorneth nicer hands." Frugality, Sir, is founded on the principle, that all riches have limits. A royal household, grown enormous, even in the meanest departments, may weaken, and perhaps destroy all energy in the highest offices of the state. The gorging a royal kitchen may stint and famish the negotiations of a kingdom. Therefore, the object was worthy of his, was worthy of any man's attention.

In consequence of this noble lord's resolution, (as he told the other house) he reduced several tables, and put the persons entitled to them upon board wages, much to their own satisfaction. But unluckily, subsequent duties requiring constant attendance, it was not possible to prevent their being fed where they were employed — and thus this first step towards oeconomy doubled the expence.

There was another disaster far more doleful than this. I shall state it, as the cause of that misfortune lies at the bottom of almost all our prodigality. Lord Talbot attempted to reform the kitchen; but such, as he well observed, is the consequence of having duty done by one person, whilst another enjoys the emoluments, that he found himself frustrated in all his designs. On that rock his whole adventure split. — His whole scheme of oeconomy was dashed to pieces; his department became more expensive than ever; — the civil list debt accumulated — Why? It was truly from a cause, which, though perfectly adequate to the effect, one would not have instantly guessed; — It was because the *turnspit in the king's kitchen was a member of parliament*. The king's domestic servants were all undone; his tradesmen remained unpaid, and became bankrupt — *because the turnspit of the king's kitchen was a member of parliament*; His majesty's slumbers were interrupted, his pillow was stuffed with thorns, and his peace of mind entirely broken — *because the king's turnspit*

*turnspit was a member of parliament.* The judges were unpaid; the justice of the kingdom bent and gave way; the foreign ministers remained inactive and unprovided; the system of Europe was dissolved; the chain of our alliances was broken; all the wheels of government at home and abroad were stopped; *because the king's turnspit was a member of parliament.*

He next proposes the abolishing a variety of offices, both in the household and civil government, such as that of the treasurer of the household, the comptroller, the cofferer, the board of green-cloth, the great wardrobe, the removing wardrobe, the jewel office, the board of works, with almost the whole civil branch of the board of ordnance, &c.

Such are the outlines of this celebrated plan of reform, which is at present the subject of more minute discussion, in one of the legislative assemblies, than can be admitted within the bounds of a Review. Of the several clauses that have hitherto been debated in the House of Commons, one only, viz. the abolition of the board of trade, has been carried in the affirmative. It is sufficient for us to observe in general, that at least a partial adoption of the plan might prove of much public advantage, and that the author has enforced the expediency of it with all the power of ingenious argument and elaborate persuasion.

*The Maid of Orleans. Translated from the French of Voltaire, Canto the First. 4to. 1s. Nearly.*

THE translator, we are informed, produces this canto as a specimen; intending to publish the whole work, should the present performance meet with the approbation of the public. He has undertaken a difficult task. There is generally something of the spirit of poetry lost by translation. The more genius, wit, naiveté, and originality, any work is possessed of, the more arduous in proportion is the translator's undertaking. We do not pretend that a translator should possess all the genius and wit of his author, but this we may venture to affirm, that there should be at least a similarity of conception and expression. Prompt decisions, in cases of this nature, are often harsh, sometimes unjust: we shall therefore only mention where we think the present translator has, and where he has not succeeded, and leave the reader to judge.

The specimen before us often rises above the native simplicity of the original; and as often errs, by falling below it. Voltaire says, in a manner suitable to the style of his poem, that  
the

the hair of the royal lover was tied up in tresses, and perfumed.

‘ Sur ses cheveux en tresses retenus  
Parfums exquis sont déjà répandus.’

The translator has expressed this idea with all the majesty of epic numbers,

‘ Tasse had arrang’d his every wanton hair,  
And choicest perfumes filled the ambient air.’

The French poet, talking of Agnes, says with the utmost simplicity,

‘ La volupté dont Agnès a sa part,  
Lui donne encor une grace nouvelle,  
Elle l’anime’——

and then concludes with a *reflexion* in the manner of la Fontaine, where wit and raillery lurk under the guise of the greatest plainness,

‘ ——— Amour est un grand fard ;  
Et a plaisir embellit toute belle.’

The translator has here too raised his muse on epic stilts,

‘ The raptures she enjoy’d, increas’d her grace,  
The purple flush of pleasure ting’d her face!’

and totally omitted the reflexion in the original.

He is likewise guilty of the opposite extreme; and sinks even below the *familiar*. He translates

‘ Maître Louvet s’en corruit au plus vite  
Chercher un pot tout rempli d’eau bénite.’  
‘ Love, ran first to fetch some holy water,  
And twenty other hoobies tumbled a’ter.’

He seems to be fond of this vulgarism *a’ter*; for we have it, about thirty lines lower, disgracing the speech of Richmond, and rhyming to *quarrel*. The same charge of vulgarity lies against his translation of

‘ ——— Ma foi, mon cher prédicateur,  
‘ God’s holy lamb and spinnage! Mr. Preacher.’

In some places he mistakes the sense of the original. A few instances will be sufficient. By not attending to the description Voltaire gives of his heroine in the second canto, he not only gives us a false translation of—‘ *feminin visage*,’ when he renders it—‘ a puling face of curds and milk,’ but also a false idea of Jane’s person, which her poet has always represented as vigorous and robust. Instead of ‘ a puling face of curds and milk,’ Voltaire tells us, she had a bold, unembarrassed counte-

countenance, black eyes, red lips, 'des tetons bruns,' and a mouth from ear to ear.

'Vous invitez—la bouche à vous baiser,' he translates 'challenge his *lips*' that scarce refrain to *bite*: besides that *bis-ing* is not the property of *lips*, Voltaire is here talking of *kiss-ing* and not of biting. . . He talks too of 'blind eyes fancy-ing charms they cannot see—to find.' Surely it was enough to tell us, that *blind eyes* fancy charms they cannot see, without giving us *to find* into the bargain, as Voltaire informs us those same eyes were not *blind*, but only 'ardent, dazzled, enchanting.'

'To garish day the nuptial couch gives place.'

We know not what right this translator has to marry miss Sorrel to the king of France; certain it is, Voltaire has made no such attempt, for he calls this *nuptial couch* a 'lit d'amour.' He translates 'on conte,' 'relate long stories,' which is by no means the idea conveyed by *on conte*, neither is it the meaning of the author. The very notion of a *long story* is tiresome, disgusting; and surely Charles and the charming Agnes wished not to be either tiresome or disgusting to each other.

There are, undoubtedly, many happy passages in this translation, and with more attention to correctness, and to the sense and genius of his author, the translator may produce something not displeasing to those who have a relish for this kind of reading. The following lines are neither the best nor the worst in the performance.

'Honest king Charles consum'd in jovial hours.  
The feast of Easter at the town of Tours.  
There, at a ball—this monarch lov'd to dance,  
He found a beauty for the good of France:  
Agnes her name—but ah! so sweet a maid  
Love never form'd till master of his trade.  
Flora was first, youth's blossom to bestow,  
Her shape, the goddess of the silver bow;  
Consenting Venus gave attractive grace,  
And smiling Cupid nestled in her face.  
To see, to love, to feel the rising fire,  
The daunted hope, emboldened by desire,  
To ogle Agnes, to affect to sigh,  
To lose his voice, and hesitate the lie,  
To press with eager grasp her yielding hand,  
And mark a flame impatient of command;  
In short, his ardent passion to display,  
And win her, was the business of a day;  
Your kings are apt to travel post that way.'

MONTHLY.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## P O L I T I C A L.

*A Letter to Edmund Burke, Esq. occasioned by his Speech in Parliament, Feb. 11, 1780. 8vo. 1s. Bew.*

**T**HE author of this pamphlet is of opinion, that Mr. Burke's plan, respecting the alteration in the civil establishment, is not founded upon those clear and comprehensive principles of policy which distinguish the arrangements of a wise and penetrating legislator; that he does not foresee the distant consequences of his intended reform; that the House of Commons has already a sufficient controul over the executive department of the state; and that a farther abridgement of the regal influence might be attended with the most pernicious effects. There is, doubtless, a proper balance between the three branches of the legislature, without the preservation of which the constitution cannot subsist in perfect vigour and soundness. And indeed, whether the democratic or aristocratic power would not be too much extended by an accomplishment of the designs at present in agitation, may be considered as a problem in politics.

*Observations on Mr. Burke's Bill, for the better Regulation of the Independence of Parliament, and economical Reformation of Establishment. By a Lady. 8vo. 1s. Becket.*

We are sorry to be informed, that the writer of this pamphlet is not a personed female. It contains many smart observations, and would have been considered as an admirable speech at the *La Belle Assemblée*.

*A Letter to Lord North. With free Thoughts on Pensions and Places. 4to. 6d. Bladon.*

The author of this letter, apparently desirous of contributing, by his counsel, all in his power towards alleviating the necessities of the state, proposes that a tax of twenty *per cent.* should be laid on pensions and places. Between petitions, associations, plans of reformation, and speculative financiers, how long will the public tranquility continue to be disturbed?

*Political Reveries, and Utopian Schemes for the Welfare of Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. 1s. 6d. W. Richardson.*

The projects suggested by this writer relate chiefly to the army and the marines. The latter of these he considers as equally qualified for serving by sea and land; and on this account, he proposes that their number should be greatly increased. As an inducement to adopt this plan, he observes that it would be attended with several other advantages, such as saving the nation, a great deal of bounty money, and enabling us to man a fleet expeditiously, at the commencement of a war.

Vol. XLIX. March, 1780.

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*The Sense of the People: a Letter to Edmund Burke, Esq. on his intended Motion in the House of Commons.* 8vo. 1s. Becket.

This is a letter to Edmund Burke, Esq. written previous to that gentleman's motion in the House of Commons, on the 11th of February. The author proceeds upon an anticipation of what he imagined would be the general objects of Mr. Burke's motion, which he doubts not, would be presented in such a form, as would be best calculated to mislead the unwary, and impose upon the unknowing. Mr. Burke, he supposes, would suggest to them ideas of cruelty in the levying, and profusion in the applying the public money; of misappropriations in the civil list, and peculation in the public offices, with a variety of similar charges; all which, the author doubts not, Mr. Burke would represent as *the sense of the people*. This assertion, however, the author positively denies, and affirms that the petitions which have been promoted in several counties, were devised with no other view than to embarrass, and, if possible, to supplant administration. His arguments are apparently well founded, and are urged with great force.

*Observations on an "An Appeal from the Protestant Association, to the People of Great Britain."* 8vo. 1s. T. Payne.

In our Review for November last, we noticed 'An Appeal from the Protestant Association to the People of Great Britain, concerning the probable Tendency of the late Act of Parliament in favour of the Papists. The author of that pamphlet considered the alteration made in the penal laws against Roman catholics, as inconsistent with the safety of the civil constitution, and of the protestant church; but the writer of the Observations before us fully refutes this idea, and evinces, in the clearest manner, the propriety of the act of parliament in question; shewing that is not only founded on humanity but on political expediency, and the strongest principles of natural justice.

*Dispassionate Thoughts on the American War.* 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

The writer of this pamphlet appears to be of the same opinion with Dr. Tucker, that we ought to abandon America to the independence for which she contends, rather than to assert her subordination to the British legislature, by a war that, besides being extremely expensive, may entirely alienate the affections of the colonists from us. The author argues with great coolness, but not, we think, with an equal degree of persuasion.

*Essay on Modern Martyrs: with a Letter to General Burgoyne.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. T. Payne.

This Essay contains an ironical vindication of some distinguished military characters that have been subjected to the imputation of delinquency. Annexed is a letter to General Burgoyne, with whom the author severely expostulates for his disobedience

obedience to the orders he had repeatedly received, of returning to America.

*An Essay towards attaining a true Idea of the Character and Reign of K. Charles I. and the Causes of the Civil War.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Parker.

A compilation arranged into chapters, and extracted verbatim from different historians, whose authorities are specified in the margin. There is reason to imagine that this collection has been made with no favourable view to the present times; but whoever can mistake the glaring contrast between the two reigns for a parallel, must certainly labour under an egregious defect of judgement.

*The Speech of Leonard Smelt, Esq. delivered by him at the Meeting of the County of York, December 30; 1779.* 4to. 2s. Faulder.

This speech has not been published under the inspection of Mr. Smelt, neither was it, we are told, taken down in short hand. The editor, therefore, does not pretend that it is a faithful copy of every identical word delivered by Mr. Smelt; but it was put together from notes, said to have been taken by several gentlemen who were present at the delivery. Under those circumstances, especially considering how much the meaning of a speaker may be misrepresented by even an apparently trifling alteration of his expressions, we cannot strictly regard this speech as the real production of Mr. Smelt. We must, however, inform our readers that it is said to have been pronounced by that gentleman at the meeting of the county of York, on the 30th of December last, held for the purpose of drawing up a petition to the House of Commons. It appears that Mr. Smelt was employed as sub-governor to the prince of Wales and the bishop of Osnabrugh; but on account of a bad state of health, he was induced to resign this appointment. He acknowledges, that since that time, by the special command of the king, he has received an annuity from the privy-purse; but this he also resigned at the moment he delivered the speech, and was therefore to be considered as an independent man. He enters with great freedom into a discussion of the views with which the meeting had been called, and of the pernicious consequences which might attend such an encroachment on the royal prerogative, as he judged to be the object of the intended petition. He likewise inveighs with great warmth against the abettors of the petition, and exhorts his hearers in the strongest terms, not to afford it their countenance. The idea which Mr. Smelt appears to entertain of the royal prerogative, may doubtless seem uncommonly extensive; but he considers it as a principle absolutely necessary for preserving the balance of the constitution; and in this view, therefore, it would be injurious to represent him as an enemy to public freedom. To fix upon him such a charge, however, has been the design of publishing this speech;

in the notes on which, an extravagant attachment to the interests of the crown is strongly insinuated.

*A Brief Enquiry into the Justice and Policy of long Confinement for Debt.* 8vo. 6d. Bew.

It is generally admitted that long imprisonment for debt is no less repugnant to the principles of policy than to those of humanity; and it is therefore pity that ever such a practice should have been authorised by the legislature. The subject is here treated in a concise, but perspicuous manner, and the author has subjoined a short view of the several insolvent acts.

## D I V I N I T Y.

*A Sermon preached before the House of Lords, on January 31, 1780. By Thomas Lord Bishop of Lincoln.* 4to. 1s. Owen.

"Honour the king," 1 Pet. ii. 17. From these words the learned author of this discourse takes occasion to shew, that submission to authority is a duty clearly and expressly enjoined in scripture. He then proceeds to consider the fatal effects of a departure from this salutary principle, exemplified in that dreadful scene of anarchy and popular frenzy, which is made the subject of a national humiliation on the 30th of January; and, lastly, he suggests some useful instructions, which may be derived from these transactions. His lordship treats the character of king Charles the first, and the subject in general, with delicacy and propriety.

*A Sermon preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal on Friday, February 4, 1780. Being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By John Lord Bishop of St. David's.* 4to. 1s. L. Davis.

His lordship very properly considers, what expedients we should have recourse to in a time of difficulty and danger; he observes, that religion directs us to place a firm trust and confidence in divine Providence; and he enquires, whether our moral deserts be such as may justly entitle us to the favours of heaven. In stating this account, he takes notice of our parties and animosities, the small regard, which is paid amongst us to the most sacred characters, and our want of temper and moderation and other bad symptoms of the times; he then urges the necessity of a speedy and effectual reformation.

*A Sermon preached before the Honourable House of Commons, on Friday, Feb. 4, 1780. Being the Day of the General Fast. By George Horne, D. D.* 4to. 1s. Rivington.

A sensible, dispassionate, and pious discourse on these words of Moses, 'When thou goes forth against thine enemies, then keep thee from every wicked thing.' Deut. xxiii. 9. shewing, that we are allowed by scriptural authority to maintain our rights and avenge our wrongs against our national enemies; and more



more particularly, that a time of war should be a time of reformation.

*A Sermon preached in the Metropolitan Church of Canterbury, on February 4, 1780, on the General Fast. By James Cornwallis, LL. D. Dean of Canterbury. 4to. 6d. Robson.*

A rational discourse, stating the arguments, which reason and scripture suggest in favour of the doctrine of a superintending providence over states and kingdoms; and the influence, which this doctrine ought to have on our public and private conduct.

*A national Change in Morals, in Measures, and in Politics necessary to national Prosperity. A Discourse preached on Feb. 4, 1780, on the General Fast. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.*

This Discourse is said to have been preached on the general fast; but from the warmth with which it is written, we suspect that it was never delivered from the pulpit. The text is a loyal one: 'Fear the Lord and the king.' Prov. xxiv. 21. In discoursing on the former part of this precept, the author thus reprobates the theological notions advanced in some late publications;

'Our predecessors believed every thing, and we believe nothing. Infidelity is the fashion. Princes write panegyrics upon drivellers and dotards. The last dying words and firm conduct of atheists and unbelievers are published to the Christian world, for their use and edification. And instead of any solid and comfortable scheme of rational theology and immortality, occult and independent properties in nature are multiplied and contended for,—the native, conscious, palpable, active and aspiring powers of the soul are disputed or denied—while the gloomy and degrading doctrines of fatal and ineluctable necessity—of a limited, imperfect, or superannuated deity,—of monstrous combinations of inert, or more monstrous organizations of intelligent matter, are hardily and cruelly obtruded on the astonished and trembling believer. So that we stand unrivalled in our achievements. We have exploded the scheme of christianity as an obsolete imposition. We have substituted matter in the room of God and Spirit: and reduced ourselves to the envious and glorious level of the brutes that perish.'

In examining how the latter part of the precept is observed, he inveighs against our pretended patriots in this animated strain:

'The opposition of this faction to the measures of government has been urged with a license of language, an irreverence of expostulation, an insolence of remonstrance, a perversion of terms, a misapplication of parts, and a prostitution of talents extremely unbecoming statesmen and subjects, and highly disgraceful to the wisdom, the weight and dignity of a senatorial convention. Nor has this factious spirit been confined to the circle of their public capacity only. The same temper has betrayed itself without doors. Our public prints are filled with the most inflammatory and seditious speeches. Rude, undutiful, contemptuous and odious personal  
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reflections are cast upon persons of supreme rank. The daemon of sedition urges his emissaries to the most indecent excesses. And bitter and unmerited invective, is directed against the august person of the sovereign, and with undaunted and overbearing insolence levelled at the throne itself.

‘Oppositions there have been to government in this, and all free states, moderate, meritorious and patriotic. And there are some few protests on record, which will do the protestors immortal honour, and stand to posterity a perennial monument of their integrity, independency, and public conscience. But always to oppose and contradict, to be incessantly morose, querulous and croaking,—for ever to wear the same rueful features, and invariably to repeat the same melancholy forebodings,—what is it but to damp and deject the brave and enterprising genius of Britain, and to add artificial spirits to her perfidious and dastardly enemies? What is it but to fight the battles of France? What is it but to rouse the native lethargy of Spain? What is it but a succedaneum for the exhausted resources, and animation to the expiring spirit of rebellion in America? What is it but the rancorous and unrelenting malignity of a disappointed and desperate faction, whose sole mortification is to be out of place, whose bitterest vexation, Cassandra like, never to be credited by those they threaten, and whose eternal opprobrium, to have been the aggravators of their country’s weakness, and, in consequence, the indirect and able auxiliaries of her enemies?’

—But, continues he, if you are mad with party, or prompted by pride to neglect and despise the happiness and allotment which is before you, go, in quest of adventurers, to some more favourite clime. Depart a voluntary exile from your hated native soil.—Embark for the continent; and, in the envied metropolis of Gaul, crouch your haughty head to the uncontrolled monarch of that servile state, and lead an anxious life, at the nod of the tyrant, every moment liable to be for ever buried in the damp and dreary caverns of the ruthless Bastille.—Or if your coward heart recoils at the prospect, let the Pyrenees secure your safety, and see how long your licentious spirit will brook the gloomy restraint and suspicious solemnity of Spanish manners; and how long you can bear to tremble under the hourly apprehension of suffering the most exquisite tortures of the Inquisition. —Or if you want more liberty, go to America;—assort with the Yankees:—cultivate their woods and wilds:—habituate yourself to the dangerous vicissitudes of their intemperate atmosphere;—and, since you are not contented to submit to the mild restraints of legal government, go and bow your neck to the feet of all the self-delegated despots which compose the Congress.’

It is observed by the author, that ‘the opposition of this day proceeds upon the beaten ground;’ that Cataline addressed his adherents in the language of our modern patriots: ‘*Quin igitur expergiscimini? En illa, illa, quam sæpe optastis, libertas!*’

*A Sermon preached at the Ordination, held November 21, 1779, by John Lord Bishop of Oxford. By John Randolph, M. A. 4to. 11. Rivington,*

In this discourse the author enquires what are the literary qualifications necessary for a Christian divine, whose business it is

to explain and defend the truths of Christianity, to convince the gainsayers, to repel their attacks, and to uphold and state in its true light that wonderful series of evidence, on which our religion depends. This, he observes, is a laborious and important undertaking; and demands an extraordinary preparation. 'The very languages of the sacred scriptures require a variety of other information; the one difficult and obscure from its high antiquity; the other from its vast copiousness, and the variations, which it has undergone.' The science of criticism is likewise necessary, 'whether it be that criticism, which decides between a number of various readings, and clears the text from its corruptions, or that higher sort which lays down with accuracy and precision the exact sense of words and sentences, their origin and derivation, and unfolds the several parts of a perplexed argument, so as to shew their relation to each other; and this an art of no moderate skill. . . . Again, a great part of the scripture is historical, and necessarily connected with parts of profane history; the very time and manner of the propagation of our religion cannot well be understood without the history of the times. . . . And if history be necessary and useful, the inferior sciences of geography and chronology, which administer to history, are at the same time included. . . . As the Christian faith has been attacked, and will probably continue to be attacked, by every species of fallacy and sophistry, it is necessary to strip this sophistry of its false dress, and to be able to reduce it to that standard, by which error and truth are distinguished. And if this be the case, then all those sciences, which tend to give us habits of close reasoning, and of attention, become collaterally useful.'

The author proceeds to shew the use of natural and moral philosophy in the cause of religion; adding that even the elegant arts should not be neglected; and that there can be no reason, why religion should not have every honest advantage.

In confirmation of the foregoing sentiments, he observes, that superstition, enthusiasm, and infidelity, have always had their foundation in ignorance.

This is a rational discourse, very properly adopted to an academical audience.

*The Perfections of the Christian's Character, represented in a Sermon preached at Barbican, May 26, 1779. By James Waldegrave. 8vo. 6d. Buckland.*

A plain practical sermon tending to shew, that the perfection of the christian character consists particularly in sincerity of heart, uniformity of conduct, a progressive improvement in piety and virtue, tranquillity of mind, and a peaceable disposition,

*Two Discourses; on the Poms and Vanities of this World, and on the Nature and Design of the Lord's Supper, 8vo. 6d. Buckland.*

The production of a female pen.—The pious author is said to have spent the principle part of her time in reading and writing; and to have died lately in an advanced age. She seems to have been sincerely desirous to do every thing in her power to promote the interest of virtue and piety.

*The Scotch Preacher. 12mo. Vol. III. 2s. 6d. sewed. Cadell.*

This volume contains sixteen sermons on the following subjects; Family Worship recommended, by Dr. A. Hunter. The Reasonableness and Necessity of Public Worship, by Mr. R. Petrie. The Death of Christ, by Mr. Somerville. Kind Affections, by Dr. M<sup>r</sup> Farlan. Our Saviour's Prayer for the Union of his Followers considered, by Mr. Macgill. The Success of the first Publishers of the Gospel a Proof of its Truth, by Dr. G. Campbell. The Sufferings of Christ, compared with those which fall out in Life to other Men, by Dr. Ogilvie. The Cause, Symptoms, and Cure of Indifference to Religion, by Dr. A. Gray. The Peace of the Grave, by Mr. J. Mackenzie. The Excellency of the Spirit of Christianity, by Dr. Leechman.

The names of Dr. Leechman, Dr. Campbell, Dr. Hunter, &c. are sufficient to recommend this Collection,

*A Dissertation on Scripture Imprecations. By Ben. Williams. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.*

Many writers have attempted to explain and reconcile with the principles of universal charity and benevolence, those imprecations, or seeming imprecations, which occur in the Psalms and other books of the Old Testament, and for this purpose have pursued different schemes of interpretation. See Jenkins's *Reasonableness of Christianity*, vol. ii. c. xix. Hammond on the Psalms. Sykes's *Introduction to Paraph. on the Heb.* An Address to the rational Advocates of the Church of England, 1769. *Crit. Rev.* vol. xxvi. p. 201. Vol. xxvii. p. 213. Vol. xxxi. p. 347. Vol. xxxiv. p. 249. Vol. xli. p. 383.

The author of this Tract endeavours to prove, as others have done before him, that in the prophetic language, verbs have an equivalent force, and the very same signification, whether they are used in the imperative mood or the future tense. See Acts i. 20. This verse, our author says, is styled a prophecy by St. Peter, a scripture to be fulfilled.

It consists of three clauses; the two first were taken from Psalm xix. 25. the last from Psalm cix. 8. They are all prophetic. And the verb in each, according to the original Hebrew, is in the future tense; yet the apostle has put all the verbs into the imperative form—a full and clear demonstration, that, according to the prophetic style, verbs whether used in the imperative mood, or the future  
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sense, were considered by St. Peter, and then generally understood by others, as having the very same meaning, and to be alike declaratory.] Compare Matt. x. 13. Luke x. 6.

This, our author thinks, is a key to all expressions, which seem to an English reader to have an imprecatory meaning, wherever they are to be found either in the Old or New Testament; and whenever a verb has in the original an imperative form, and the sense is only declaratory, it ought to be rendered into English, according to the different genius of the language, in the future tense, and particularly in Psalm xxviii. 4. 'Thou shalt give them according to their deeds;' and in Psalm lxxix. 12. 'Thou shalt or wilt render unto your neighbours sevenfold:' so in Psalm cix. 6. 'Thou shalt set a wicked man over him;' so likewise in Acts i. 20. 'His habitation shall be desolate;' and finally, in 2 Tim. iv. 14. 'Alexander the copper-smith did me much evil, the Lord shall or will reward him.'

All imprecations are evidently inconsistent with the genius of the gospel; but some have thought that they are not disagreeable to the spirit of the law; and therefore might be allowable under the Mosaic dispensation. Our Saviour, they imagine, has countenanced this opinion in his sermon on the mount, as he is there supposed to point out the imperfections of the Jewish law: whereas, his design, our author says, was not to depreciate the law, to alter it, or add to it, but to explain it, to vindicate it from the corrupt glosses of the scribes and pharisees, and to represent it as a complete system of moral precepts, breathing a spirit of unbounded benevolence and kindness. In confirmation of this idea, he has subjoined a paraphrase of the fifth chapter of St. Matthew, chiefly taken from Dr. Doddridge.

To the Dissertation and Paraphrase is subjoined a Preliminary Discourse, which is designed to accompany a new collection of the Psalms, extracted from the writings of the most eminent English poets.

*An Explanation of the Prophecy of the Seven Vials, or the Seven Last Plagues, contained in the Revelation of St. John, Chapters XV. and XVI. 8vo. 1s. Rivington.*

The drift of this interpretation is, that the seven vials, or the seven plagues, mentioned Rev. ch. xvi. principally relate to the church of Rome; that the first refers to the grievances under which men groaned for a long time, in all those countries which acknowledged the papal jurisdiction, when it was most widely extended; that the second relates to the crusades; the third to the wars and conflicts of the Roman catholics among themselves, viz. between the Guelphs and Gibelins, and several contending popes; that the fourth refers to the reformation, and the *few* particularly, in the 8th verse, denotes the *scriptures*, which scorched, or occasioned great perplexity to the Roman catholics, at that time; that the fifth relates to the dissolution of the order of the jesuits; that the sixth and seventh remain yet unaccomplished, the latter alluding to the final overthrow of

of the papal tyranny, &c. and the former to some great event preparatory to it.

All this *may* be true ; but such like interpretations can only be considered as vague and uncertain conjectures.

# P O E T R Y.

*The Senatorial Dispensary; a Poem.* 4to. 1s. Portal.

There is some true wit and humour (things which we very seldom meet with), together with no inconsiderable degree of poetical merit in this little ludicrous performance. The author sets out with the whimsical idea, that drugs, medicines, &c. if properly applied and administered, might cure the disorders of the mind, as well as those of the body. 'Then says he),

'—might some *solvent*, W—d, melt the lead,  
The only *mine* that's fertile in thy head ;  
Or some *astringent* stop with little pain,  
The stubborn *diabetes* of the brain.'

He then brings his physic into St. Stephen's Chapel :

'Where N—n, deck'd with due official form,  
"Rides in the whirlwind, and directs the storm."

This line of Addison's is here happily applied : There (as he)

'Let there be plac'd a well-stor'd Medicine Chest,  
With every drug that may each temper hit,  
Weigh'd out in doses, *quantum sufficit*,  
From which let all the members when they meet,  
In order take their physic, and their seat,  
This would so harmonize each jarring soul,  
That one opinion would pervade the whole,  
Concurrent voices would exclude debate,  
And moderation soften party hate.'

A little further on he exclaims,

'Or couldst thou, great Vanbutchel, keep this house,  
As uncorrupt as thou can'st keep thy spouse,  
Then should the grateful muse *embalm* thy fame,  
*Pickle* thy merits, and *preserve* thy name.  
Bateman's elixir, with cathartic touch,  
Would rake the neutral bottoms of the Dutch ;  
Sound and secure should Britain's glory live,  
Propt now and then with *Smyth's Restorative* ;  
And thou, great Leake ! *thy justly famous pill*  
Might safely vend without a chance to kill.  
Raynes might his fame enlarge, his price enhance,  
By curing *ruptures* between us and France,  
And all would Gallia's latent tricks espy,  
If Baron Wenzel *couch'd the nation's eye*.'

There is a vein of pleasantry in these lines which our readers, we are sure, will not be displeased with.

This poem, which ends rather abruptly, seems, upon the whole, much to resemble, in the style and manner, a little piece, called the *Project*, (see our Review for March, 1778, vol.

vol. xlv. p. 228) though whether it be written by the same hand we cannot pretend to determine.

*Unanimity; a Poem.* By J. Macaulay. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

This Poem contains some very good advice to Old England at the present crisis, and is not ill-written. The following lines are spirited, and we hope *prophetic*; speaking of Britannia, the author says,

'Like her own rocks, when angry Boreas raves,  
Plows the mad sea, and rides the foaming waves;  
Secure the stands, tho' angry tempests beat,  
And sees the billows break beneath her feet.  
'Midst foreign tumults, and domestic jars,  
The snares of treason, and the spoil of wars,  
Her native strength can ev'ry blast oppose,  
And hurl defiance on her boasting foes.'

*Unanimity; a Poem.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Bew.

Wherever the malignant spirit of party (which is at present so universally prevalent amongst us) interferes, it defeats all the efforts of genius, damps the spirit of poetry, and sours every thing it comes near; that *little heaven leaveth the whole lump*. Such is the case with regard to this poem. The author seems to have some power of numbers, a lively imagination, and no contemptible parts; but having been unfortunately bit by some mad patriot, the effects of his disorder appear in every line; he frets, rails, and abuses, calumniates every body that is *not* on his side of the question; and extols, with awkward praise and ill-deserved eulogium, every body who *is*, without regard to truth, reason, or character. As Pope says,

'He raves, recites, and maddens thro' the land.'

This observation the following short specimen may serve to confirm:

'Professions ministerial who believes?  
Saint St-ph-n's chapel's but a den of th--ves;  
Whence courtly fumes fly off in fulsome stench,  
And quickly reach the nostrils of the bench,  
Right Reverend—C--nw-llis draws 'em in,  
And M--kh-m thinks gross treachery no sin.  
Snuffing up flatt'ry's incense Th--rlow's seen;'

He goes on in this manner for several pages, echoing newspaper abuse, and retailing fashionable scandal; after which he slides into fulsome panegyric on American heroes and Irish patriotism.

'Strange things of fabled heroes verse relates;  
Mine sacred flows to Washington and Gates;  
To arms and wisdom in one cause combin'd,  
Alarm'd by suff'rings, and by Leinster join'd.  
'Turn not thine ear, Hibernia!—check supplies!  
Bid New'nham, like another Laurence, rise;

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Under his auspices, with infinite warm,  
Behold another patriot congress form !  
Bid slighted loyalty to sense resort ;  
Arm ! arm ! to crush the pathics of a court ;  
In this resolve let all but slaves agree,  
And sacrifice to unanimity."

To this *sacrifice* our readers who have patience enough to peruse this poem will probably add *another*, by *unanimously* consigning it to everlasting oblivion.

*The Britaniad; a Poem.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsly.

This is a very poor performance. In the very first page we meet with these two lines ;

' Religion, arm me with thy sacred *meal*,  
*Chaste* be my verse, conviction must *prevail*.'

*Quale principium !* The *verse*, as our author says, may be *chaste*, but surely the *rhime* is not so. It is better, however, than some that follow, such as

' But when thy weakness unto party *lean'd*,  
And independent nonsense was *proclaim'd*.'

Or, which comes a little after,

' Shall I be turst in patriotic *sense*,  
Because I with confusion to the *French* ?'

The following reflection is a curious one ;

' The man who tries all sides, and fail's undone,  
*No principles so dangerous are as none.*'

Surely we may say of this author, in return,

None but himself can be his parallel ;

or, to speak of the poem, and the writer, in his own words, towards the conclusion ;

' The poem, poh ! it merits no such name,  
The printer, now I think on't, is to blame,  
His judgment should have check'd so vain a *thought*,  
And not have printed what a *dunce* had wrote.'

*Rebellion and Opposition, a Poem.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Bladon.

This is a *political* poem, and perhaps because it is so, good for nothing. Politics, we have remarked, seldom accord with the Muses, as is fully exemplified by the piece before us, which contains near fifty pages in very bad rhyme, only reiterating what we have already heard too much of, the dreadful consequences of an American war, the obstinacy, dissimulation, and cruelty of the rebels, and the impolitic and inefficacious measures taken on our part to subdue them. The verses are throughout poor, low, and prosaic—take a short specimen, readers, and be satisfied.

' The proud Americans, whose ardent eye  
Was boldly fix'd on independency ;  
Who had thrown off one tax of high import,  
Now at defiance boldly set the court,  
And these same men view'd with contempt and scorn  
Whose image lately in their breast was worn,

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Of those, alas! still harder was the lot  
Who went t'enforce this law upon the spot:  
Insulted, pelted, smote by fury dire,  
They scarce with life were suffer'd to retire."

*Paradise Regain'd; or, the Battle of Adam and the Fox. An Heroic Poem. 4to. 2s. Bew.*

It now and then happens that a public occurrence of a singular nature gives opportunity to wit and genius to exercise themselves upon it, and produces some pretty poem or entertaining pamphlet, that at least amuses the world for a time, and brings on some degree of temporary fame to the author. Of this we were in hopes from the title of the little piece before us, which, if the subject had been well-treated, might have afforded no small entertainment. But this, unfortunately for us, is not the case with regard to *Paradise Regain'd*, which is one of the dullest pieces of unintelligible nonsense which we were ever obliged to wade through; without one *mica salis* in the whole to recompense us for our labour.

The metre in which this poem (for so the author modestly styles it) is written, is neither the Heroic, or Miltonic, the Alternate Rhyme, the Hudibrastic, nor in short any measure that ever appeared before, or probably ever will again—as the reader will see by the following lines.

'Recording muse, O say, how Adam in  
Contemplation of mighty empire lost,  
In thought sublime, 'bove the Pelion towers,  
From whence Jove convers'd with the humbler gods,  
In voice harmonious as sweet organ's note,  
Chaunting in elevations godly psalms:  
Meditating in thought, great nature's child,  
On the flowery meads, silver streams, rosy  
Bowers, golden fruit of Paradise Lost:  
His heart beat high, like the panting deer chas'd  
By the tender-neck'd hoard, tumultuous.'

In this strange dissonant jargon he goes on for near forty pages; but as we cannot from any one of them select a single passage that would give our readers the least pleasure, they will readily excuse any farther quotation from, or unnecessary criticism on this despicable performance.

*Two Poetical Epistles, with a Postscript, respecting the Fates of Clergymen, as they were address'd to a young Gentleman, in the Year 1777, who was at that Time lately ordained; with a Preface, written towards the End of last Year, that shews them to have been intended for Publication. 4to. Becket.*

The anonymous editor of these Poems (for the author, we are informed, is dead) seems extremely solicitous with regard to the poetical character of his deceased friend, and to entertain a higher opinion of his merit as a writer than the work before us will, we are afraid, be able to justify. "He doubts not, (he says, in a prefatory advertisement) of their proving equally acceptable to the reader with the many antecedent productions of his

his friend, and that, in that case, the expence of printing them will be amply defrayed."

As the warmth of friendship, especially when thus extended beyond the grave, is certainly laudable, we are sorry that it is not in our power, consistent with that justice which as impartial Reviewers we owe to the public, to congratulate him on the extraordinary merit of this performance; for though we have read these poems, as we do every work, with a sincere wish to find them deserving of every encomium we could bestow, we cannot discover any great beauties in them. The principal subject of these Epistles is, the State of Religion in this country, and the Hardships of the Inferior Clergy, which have already been much better handled in humble prose. In the beginning of the first Epistle we meet with the following lines;

' Religion, long descended from the skies,  
Had back to homeward *lift* her weary eyes.'

Lift (for lifted) is, we fear, rather ungrammatical;

' Her martyrs flam'd, and lakes of human blood  
Imbru'd the reeking soil, where'er she trod.  
Her candid bosom gor'd had ever borne  
The painful cross, her brows the platted thorn.  
'Twas thus distress imperial bounty found,  
Reliev'd her sinking, heal'd her many a wound;  
With watchful care protected from the storm,  
And cloath'd in better garb her heav'nly form.  
' The time would fail me, and the *millionth* page,  
'T' unfold the scenes of many an after age;  
Or how, 'midst Huns, Goths, Alans, and the rest,  
Where'er she sojourn'd, far'd this heav'n-born guest;  
If uninspir'd your friend might bring to light  
Things almost hidden in surrounding night.'

The few lines which we have here quoted are as good as any in the collection. These the reader may see do not rise above mediocrity, and

—Mediocribus esse poetis  
Non Dii, non homines, &c.

*Four Elegiac Tales.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Flexney.

To those who are fond of the plaintive and pathetic we would recommend these Tales as not unworthy of their attention. They are in general well-written, and may boast of as much poetical merit as that species of metre (the ancient sing-song) is capable of. The tales are taken from various parts of the old English history, and consequently interesting to an English reader. The first of them called, the Nun, is, much the best, being a very affecting story, and extremely well told.

*Ingratitude, an Ode; and Sir Salvadore, an Allegoric Poem.* 8vo.  
Printed at Lincoln. 1s. 6d. Crowder.

The writer of this little poem informs us, at the beginning of it, that his intention is

\* To strike at humble distance Spencer's lyre.\*

Spencer's lyre is undoubtedly very sweet and harmonious; but our Lincolnshire bard is not possessed of musical abilities sufficient to play upon it with any degree of excellency. We would advise him, therefore, to change the instrument, if he expects to be listened to or admired.

### M E D I C A L.

*Philosophical Inquiries into the Laws of Animal Life, Chap. I.*

By Hugh Smith, M. D. 4to. 1s. L. Davis.

In a course of lectures delivered by this author about two years ago, he advanced some conjectures concerning animal life, and the laws of the animal œconomy, the general outlines of which he afterwards published. In respect of the pamphlet which contained them we observe, that it was impossible to form any positive judgement of his principles, without a more full view of the experiments and arguments adduced by the author in their support. His doctrine, we now find, is, that air is the material cause of every motion proper to life. This proposition he endeavours to confirm by some experiments made on the heart of eels, or of tench, and showing it to be differently effected by the presence and absence of the atmospheric air. Dr. Smith's hypothesis is ingenious, but not satisfactorily established. For the change of motion which he observed in the heart, when alternately exposed to, and separated from, the atmospheric air, might as well be imputed to the stimulus of the air externally, as to the operation of that element within the vessels of the heart.

*The Gout and Rheumatism cured or alleviated; proved by well authenticated Cases of the most painful Fits being removed in a few Days.* By William Rowley, M. D. 8vo. 2s. F. Newbery.

The means recommended for the cure of these diseases, are a bath and cataplasm, the preparations for which, we are told, were originally procured from France, but the composition has since been improved. The remedies being a secret, the proof of their efficacy must rest entirely on the cases adduced by the author in support of them; and we shall therefore only inform our readers, that he has added reflections on the causes of the gout, and the danger of altering the diet in chronic complaints.

*Observations and Remarks respecting the more effectual Means of Preservation of wounded Seamen and Marines on board his Majesty's Ships in Time of Action.* 8vo. 1s. T. Evans.

The author of these Observations is Mr. Rymer, a surgeon of the navy, whom we had occasion to mention favourably in a former Review\*. On account of the impossibility of always performing amputation, in a ship, so speedily as might be desirable, he proposes that every surgeon should be supplied with a number of tourniquets; in proportion to the complement of the ship: an expedient which appears to be highly proper.

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\* See Crit. Rev. for Nov. 1779, p. 400.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

*Letters on the Utility and Policy of employing Machines to shorten Labour.* 8vo. 1s. Becket.

That political and commercial advantages are ultimately inseparable, no doubt can be entertained; but it is no less certain, that in particular cases, they may clash with each other. If machines be used for shortening labour, a number of industrious persons may be deprived of their usual employment; and on the other hand, if the manufacturer should be excluded from such a resource, the price of his commodities must be increased, in proportion to the superior price of labour. The use of machines, therefore, though in general beneficial to the manufacturer, can be considered as advantageous to the public only when the price of the commodities is raised so high by that of labour, as to diminish the sale of them in foreign markets. Upon this principle, the author of these letters contends for the utility of such machines; and draws hence some hints for the improvement and farther extension of our woollen trade and manufactures.

*Lessons on Elocution; or Miscellaneous Pieces in Prose and Verse, selected from the best Authors for the perusal of Persons of Taste, and the Improvement of Youth in Reading and Speaking.* By William Scott, Teacher in Edinburgh. 12mo. 3s. Longman.

A useful collection of pieces proper for exercises in speaking, selected with taste, and arranged with judgment, for the purpose of leading the young speaker, by gentle steps, from the more easy to the more difficult branches of elocution, having been provided in Dr. Enfield's *Speaker*\*, and received with approbation; a literary adventurer not only adopts the leading design of this useful miscellany, but, for the most part fills his collection with the same pieces. Unfortunately, however, for this new compiler, he has not had judgment to improve upon the former collection in his materials; and he has shewn such ignorance of the nature of elocution, and the proper method of teaching it, that he has departed from that part of the plan of the *Speaker*, which is its chief merit, the arrangement of the pieces in the order best suited to exercise the learner's talents, under the heads of *selected sentences*, *narrative*, *didactic*, *argumentative*, *oratorical*, *colloquial*, and *pathetic*, and instead of this disposition, has adopted the trite and unmeaning distribution into *prose* and *verse*. There is, therefore, little danger that this publication will eclipse the reputation or supersede the use of that from which the idea of it is borrowed. It will probably meet with the neglect which all such unnecessary and useless publications deserve.

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\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxxix. p. 273.



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T H E

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *April*, 1780.

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*Remarks on Dr. Samuel Johnson's Journey to the Hebrides. By the Rev. Donald M'Nicol, A.M. 8vo. 4s. in boards. Cadell.*

**M**R. M'Nicol informs us in an advertisement, that these Remarks were written soon after the publication of Dr. Johnson's Journey to the Hebrides; but a reluctance to the engaging in a literary contest without consulting a few learned friends, whose opinion, by the distance of situation, the author could not hastily procure, has so long retarded the accomplishment of his design, that he considers the work on which he comments as having previously sunk into oblivion. 'This consideration is so discouraging, (says he) that the writer of the Remarks expects little literary reputation, and less profit, from his labours. But, as he had gone so far, he was induced to go farther still, were it for nothing more than the ambition of sending his work to *sleep* on the same shelf with that of the learned Dr. Johnson.'

The author introduces his examination with some general remarks on the usefulness of travelling, when the observations are made with candour, and related with impartiality; acknowledging at the same time, that Dr. Johnson set out on his journey strongly prejudiced against the country which he intended to visit, and thence peculiarly disposed to misrepresentation and error.

Mr. M'Nicol's first remark is, that Dr. Johnson's account of the island of Inch Keith is trifling and contradictory. 'He represents it (says the remarker) as a barren rock, where formerly was a fort; and yet he tells us again, that it was never intended for a place of strength, and that a herd of cows grazes annually upon it in the summer. But a *fort* without

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R

*Strength*

*Strength* is surely something *new*, and grazing for cattle a most *uncommon mark* of barrenness.'

Mr. M'Nicol farther observes, that, in speaking of this island, Dr. Johnson amuses himself with thinking on the different appearance it would have made had it been placed at the same distance from London that it is from Edinburgh. This comparative allusion the remarker considers as implying a censure on the taste of his countrymen. He therefore informs the doctor, that Inch Keith is royal property, and, on that account, can neither be cultivated nor adorned by the inhabitants of the neighbouring capital.

After rallying Dr. Johnson on his assertion, that a tree is as great a curiosity in Scotland as a horse at Venice, he proceeds to notice the doctor's observations on his arrival at St. Andrew's.

'As the doctor (says he) arrived at St. Andrew's at two in the morning, it is pleasant enough to hear him say, "Though we were yet in the most populous part of Scotland, and at so small a distance from the capital, we met few passengers."—Few people, I believe, would complain of this circumstance, at the same hours, and at so small a distance from the English capital. But it is pretty evident, that the doctor meant nothing less than a compliment to the Scots, for the security with which he performed this nocturnal expedition.

'But the night is the natural season for rest; and that being considered, it effectually takes the *sing* from the above silly remark. What man in his senses would expect to find crowded roads at midnight? Or what man of common honesty would be bold enough to assert, that there were few or no trees in Fife, because forsooth they were not to be seen in the dark?'

The author next examines the foundation of some sarcastic expressions used by Dr. Johnson, and endeavours to refute, from an appeal to history, the assertion of the latter, that all the civilization introduced into Scotland is entirely owing to its trade and intercourse with England. He observes, that from the close of the eighth century to the union, there was a constant alliance between France and Scotland, the former of which is acknowledged to be the country whence England received her civilization; and that, as Scotland had access to the original long before the sister kingdom, it would be ridiculous to suppose she should have occasion to borrow from the copy.

Besides other remarks which Mr. M'Nicol makes on Dr. Johnson's account of St. Andrew's, he censures the representation of the rates at which the different classes of students may there pass their session or term, as extremely erroneous, and, in general, falling short of the necessary expenses by more than one half.

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As a specimen we shall lay before our readers a few subsequent pages of the Remarks.

His next stage was Aberbrothick, to which he pays a very unusual compliment, on account of its ancient and magnificent, but now decayed monastery; for he tells us, page 20, "that he should scarcely have regretted his journey, had it afforded nothing more than the sight of Aberbrothick."

I know not with what degree of pleasure the doctor surveyed the ruins of this venerable pile; but his abrupt description of it cannot convey much to the reader, nor induce any other stranger to travel so far for the same sight. He endeavours to account for this deficiency, by pleading the approach of night, which obliged them to desist from their researches. Had there been no other day to succeed that night, this indeed might be some excuse; but it affords none for not returning next morning, to have a more complete view of an object which he owns had captivated his fancy so much.

There was no occasion, however, to call in the assistance of the night to conceal from his readers a scene which did some credit the country. The doctor, while in Scotland, never saw more than he was willing to communicate. He touches very slightly, or not at all, on such objects as might excite the curiosity of the inquisitive; but the most trifling handle for obloquy is greedily laid hold of, and tediously displayed.

Page 21. At Montrose, he complains much of the behaviour of the inn-keeper. But, happily for this nation, he found out that his host was an Englishman, otherwise "every mother's son of us" would have been reprobated for his sake.

While at this place, he observes, that our beggars "solicit silently, or very modestly" — here, one would naturally expect he had found something to speak well of; but not so with the doctor. He begins a harangue on the merits of the begging-trade, and concludes in favour of clamour and perseverance. When a man will not allow the silent modesty of a Scotch beggar to escape the lash, it is enough to shew that he is determined not to be pleased.

I intended to have made a remark on what I thought an impropriety in our traveller's language, when he says that "the *hedges* near Montrose are of *stone*." But I shall leave the *thorn* of correction for the abler hand of Lexiphanes; a name which the doctor may long remember, for a former complete trimming of his vocabulary.

In his way from Montrose, he observes, that the fields are so generally plowed, that it is hard to imagine where grass is found for the horses that till them." — Alas! what shall poor Scotland do to please the good doctor? In one place he finds too little tillage, in another too much. Not long ago, he told us, "that the whole country was extended in uniform nakedness;" but here he seems to forget himself, and says, "the harvest, which was almost ripe, appeared very plentiful." A

country covered with a plentiful crop cannot, certainly, be called naked. But let the reader account for such caprices, and reconcile such contradictions, if he can.

He insinuates, page 24, that there are no robbers in Scotland. But, as he seldom bestows with the one hand, without taking away with the other, he concludes his observation by adding, "But where there are so few travellers, why should there be robbers?"—If he means any thing by this, it must be, that the poverty with which he every-where brands the Scotch nation, makes the poorer sort honest. This is one good consequence from a misfortune at least; but the conclusion will by no means follow. Riches and poverty are relative all the world over; and consequently, where there is but little wealth, the wants of the most indigent will be as effectually relieved by depredations on their neighbours, as in more opulent countries. In spite of the doctor's sophistry, therefore, a pretended want of inducements to rapine fails to account here for the want of the practice. The safety with which, as he confesses, he pursued his journey, both by night and by day, called for a more generous interpretation. It is principle alone, and neither the penury or paucity of its inhabitants, that exempts the traveller in Scotland from the terrors of the pistol and dagger.

This communicative gentleman, among other curious anecdotes, informs us, that he seldom found in Scotland any method of keeping their windows open, when there was occasion for admitting fresh air, but by holding them up with the hand, unless now and then among good contrivers there be a nail which one might stick into a hole to keep them from falling.—The misfortune is, whatever the doctor meets with but once, if it suits his purpose, he will make universal. That he might meet with some instances of what he mentions, I will not dispute; nor in remote corners, nor even elsewhere, when the pullies may happen to be out of order, do I think it a bad shift; and if our neighbours of the south have not a nail, or some such expedient, in the like circumstances, they are not what he calls good contrivers.

For once, however, he seems to feel a conscious blush for the futility of his censures; and we find him have the good grace to offer an apology for abasing himself so far as to mention such trifles as nails to support windows, by alleging, "that the great outlines or characteristic of a nation are to be marked out not in palaces, or among the learned, but among the bulk of the people."—This is certainly a just observation, in which I heartily agree with him; and had he begun to *mark out* these *outlines* or *characteristics* a little nearer home, he might, perhaps, have found fewer novelties on this side of the Tweed.

Mr. M'Nicol next enters upon a historical refutation of a passage in the Journey, where Dr. Johnson speaks of Scotland's being conquered by Cromwell: and he afterwards rallies the traveller for affirming, upon the authority of some person  
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at Aberdeen, that the people learned from Cromwell's soldiers to make shoes, and to plant kail. Dr. Johnson, Mr. M'Nicol alledges, would insinuate, that kail and other garden vegetables had abounded in England long before they were cultivated in Scotland. But that the contrary was the fact, the remarker appeals to Anderson's *History of the Rise and Progress of Commerce*, whence it appears, that in 1509 there was not a fallad in all England, and that cabbages, carrots, turneps, and other plants and roots, were imported from the Netherlands. The remarker also cites the authority of John Leslie, bishop of Ross, who flourished about 1560, and in his *History of Scotland* mentions Glasgow as being a famous market not only for wine, &c. but that it likewise abounded in orchards and garden herbs. The same author affirms that Murray was likewise famous for all sorts of corn, and for orchards, &c. The evidence adduced by Mr. M'Nicol on this subject is, doubtless, highly respectable, but it does not fully ascertain whether England or Scotland has the better claim to priority of cultivation in the articles above mentioned; for half a century had elapsed between the period specified by Anderson, and that in which the bishop wrote his history. How rapid the progress of gardening might have been in that interval, it is difficult to determine. At the same time it must be acknowledged, that as Glasgow, and even Murray, abounded in the produce of orchards in 1560, there arises a presumption that fruit-trees had been cultivated in those parts, perhaps so early as the period mentioned by Anderson.

Having finished those enquiries, the author of the *Remarks* thus proceeds:

‘ After concluding his history of kail, the doctor gives a specimen of his abilities as a philosopher. “ How they lived without kail, (says he) it is not easy to guess: they cultivate hardly any other plant for common tables, and when they had not kail, they probably had nothing.”—What force of reasoning! how beautiful! how just the conclusion! The fable of the chameleon needs no longer give surprise. Air is something to live upon; but this miracle of English erudition has found out, that a whole nation of people can live for ages upon nothing. All great discoveries, to be sure, have been reserved for that favourite spot of heaven, called England. But Dr. Johnson's *nothing* surpasses *every thing!*”

The Remarker afterwards, in opposition to the authority or alledged insinuations of Dr. Johnson, asserts the claim of Scotland to an early acquaintance with literature, civilization, and refinement; in proof of which he again has recourse to historical evidence.

The credit which Dr. Johnson appears to have given to the notion concerning the second sight, is next the subject of the remarker's attention; and in this case, it will be readily admitted the doctor seemed particularly liable to the imputation of credulity.

The most interesting to literature, of all the particulars mentioned either by Dr. Johnson, or the author of the Remarks, is the antiquity of Gaelic manuscripts, as upon this circumstance must depend, in a great measure, the authenticity of the Poems of Ossian. Dr. Johnson has asserted "that there is not in the world an Earle manuscript a hundred years old." This assertion Mr. McNicol refutes by several arguments, intermixed with a variety of facts. He appeals to an elegy on Sir Duncan Dow Campbell, ancestor to the earl of Breadalbane, written by a bard named Macewen, in 1630, and preserved among the papers of the family of Breadalbane, at Taymouth. This is, however, a voucher of recent date, in comparison of others mentioned by Mr. McNicol, as will appear from the following quotation.

Among the old MSS. of considerable length, I took notice particularly of two. One gives the history of Smerbie More, one of the ancestors of the duke of Argyle, who lived in the fifth century, according to a MS. genealogy of that illustrious family; and the other contains the history of the sons of Usnoth. They are both in the Gaelic language and character, and are so very old as to be difficult to be read. They are in the possession of Mr. Mackyntire of Glenoe, near Bunaw in Argyleshire.

But as the doctor may think it too great a trouble to travel again to the Highlands for a sight of old manuscripts, I shall put him upon a way of being satisfied nearer home. If he will but call some morning on John Mackenzie, Esq. of the Temple, Secretary to the Highland Society at the Shakespeare, Covent-Garden, he will find in London more volumes in the Gaelic language and character, than perhaps he will be pleased to look at, after what he has said. They are written on vellum in a very elegant manner; and they all bear very high marks of antiquity. None of them are of so modern an origin as that mentioned by the doctor. Some have been written more than five hundred years ago; and others are so very old, that their dates can only be guessed at, from the subjects of which they treat.

Among these are two volumes which are very remarkable. The one is a large folio MS. called *An Duanaireadh Ruadh*, or, the Red Rhymers, which was given by Mr. Macdonald of Glengaladel in Muideart, to Mr. Macdonald of Kyles in Cnoideart, who gave it to Mr. Macpherson. It contains a variety of subjects, such as some of Ossian's Poems, Highland Tales, &c.—The other is called *An Leabhar Dearg*, or, the Red Book, which was given to Mr. Macpherson by the bard Macvorich,

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This was reckoned one of the most valuable MSS. in the bard's possession.

Since I began these Remarks, I have been informed by Mr. Macdonald, the publisher of the Gaelic poetry, that his uncle, Mr. Lachlan Macdonald in South-Uist, was well acquainted with the last of these manuscripts; and as that gentleman is a great master of the Gaelic language and character, his opinion concerning its antiquity, from the character and other circumstances, is the more to be relied upon.

To finish this head at present, let me next inform the doctor, that the bard Macvurich alone is in possession of a greater number of Gaelic manuscripts than the doctor perhaps would choose to read in any language. At the earnest and repeated request of Mr. Macdonald, the publisher just mentioned, the bard has been at last prevailed upon to open his repositories, and to permit a part of them to be carried to Edinburgh, for the satisfaction of the curious, and the conviction of the incredulous. I myself have seen more than a thousand pages of what has been thus obtained, as have hundreds besides; and Mr. Macdonald assures me, that what he has got leave to carry away bears but a very small proportion to what still remains with the bard.

It seems almost unnecessary to mention that all those manuscripts are in the Gaelic language and character. Some of them have suffered greatly by bad keeping; but many more by the ravages of time. The character of several is allowed by all, who have seen the manuscripts, to be the most beautiful they had ever beheld.

From the various authorities adduced by Mr. M'Nicol to prove the antiquity of compositions in the Gaelic language, and likewise from the instances he mentions of many thousand lines of Gaelic poetry being transmitted by oral communication, the most essential objections which had been made to the authenticity of the Poems of Ossian appear to be fully removed; and we may therefore, at length, consider as extinguished a controversy which seems to have arisen from prejudice or scepticism, and never to have had any foundation either in probability or fact.

We must acknowledge, that in those Remarks Mr. M'Nicol discovers an uncommon fund of ingenuity and acuteness. Several errors, respecting information, he has clearly refuted; and some apparent inconsistencies he has placed in a strong point of view. If, in maintaining the honour of his country against reflections which he considered as injurious, he has sometimes betrayed the same kind of prejudice that he so strongly reprehends in his antagonist, his conduct perhaps might merit the pardon of candid criticism; but we cannot regard with any degree of indulgence, the illiberal strain of

personal abuse, of petulant invective, and of groundless insinuation, into which he has frequently descended. We may add, that the Remarks would, in many places, have carried greater force, as well as dignity, had the author discovered fewer symptoms of unaccommodating prejudice, and intemperate zeal, where the subject concerned religion.

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*Biographical Memoirs of Medicine in Great Britain, from the Revival of Literature to the Time of Harvey. By John Aikin, Surgeon. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Johnson,*

IN a former Review \* we gave an account of Mr. Aikin's Specimen of the Medical Biography of Great Britain. The plan upon which he then proposed to execute the work, was so extensive that he has since thought proper to contract it within narrower bounds; for which he adduces satisfactory reasons in the preface. He tells us, he soon perceived that of all the materials for information, printed books were alone what he had any chance of procuring; a discovery which, at once, reduced his plan to the compass of a comparatively modern period. He was farther mortified with the prospect of not accomplishing even this part of his design so perfectly as he hoped to have done. After the most careful enquiries, many of the publications he wanted were not to be found; and a few, though known to exist, were locked up in libraries, the rules of which did not allow of their being lent for perusal, on any interest or security.

Mr. Aikin informs us some of his most esteemed medical correspondents have hinted a desire, that he would confine his researches to the progress of the art, without troubling himself with the biography of its professors. He acknowledges this to be the most useful and essential part of his undertaking; but he could not forgo the opportunities which offered of adding somewhat to the stock of British biography.

The work commences after the revival of literature, and the first person noticed is John Phreas, who was born in London at the end of the fourteenth, or beginning of the fifteenth century. Phreas having visited Italy, his extraordinary merit attracted the regard of pope Paul II. to whom the former had dedicated a translation of Diodorus Siculus. In return for this compliment, the pontiff created him bishop of Bath and Wells. But he enjoyed this dignity not long; dying at Rome before consecration, in 1465, not without suspicion of being poisoned by a competitor.

The next in the Memoirs is Thomas Linacre, who was born at Canterbury, in or about the year 1460. He was successively physician to the kings Henry VII. Henry VIII. Edward VI. and the princess Mary, and is distinguished for having procured the institution of the Royal College of Physicians in London.

We afterwards meet with an account of William Butte or Butts, John Chambre, Andrew Borde or Boorde, Sir Thomas Elyot, Edward Wotton, George Owen, Robert Recorde, Albayn Hyll, Thomas Phrayser or Phaire, William Turner, Thomas Gibson, John Clement, Thomas Gale, John Kaye, or Key, more generally known by the name of Caius, William Cunningham, William Bulleyn, Richard Caldwell, John Securis, John Jones, George Etheridge, John Banister, Thomas Muffett, William Gilbert, John Halle, John David Rhesc, William Butler, William Clowes, Peter Lowe, Francis Anthony, Matthew Gwiane, Philemon Holland, Theodore Goulston, Edward Jorden, John Woodall, Theodere Turquet de Mayerne, Robert Fludd, Thomas Winston, Tobias Venner.

It appears from this enumeration that Mr. Aikin has admitted into the work many obscure names, which, without any detriment to science, might have been suffered to remain in oblivion. But, indeed, excluding such, the biographical memoirs of the faculty, from *Æsculapius* to the present time, would form a very inconsiderable narrative; and curiosity may be gratified with circumstances that are foreign to the improvement of science.

The preceding catalogue is followed by the name of the great Harvey, who justly merits the most distinguished place in the annals of physic.

As a specimen of the work, we shall make an extract from this part.

‘ Although many of the persons we have hitherto commemorated were eminent in various branches of literature, and either adorned their profession by elegant accomplishments, or enriched their art by useful observations; yet none of them can be considered as giving a new æra to the medical science in general, by great and signal discoveries. The barrenness of our biographical records in this respect, is however amply repaid by the renowned subject of the present article; who enlightened the world with the investigation of a law in the animal œconomy, of such fundamental importance, as justly to place his name in the highest rank of natural philosophers. The same services which Newton afterwards rendered to optics and astronomy by his theories of light and gravitation, Harvey rendered to anatomy by his true doctrine of the circulation: and from the intimate connection of this science with the healing art, the practical utility

utility of this discovery has not been inferior to its speculative beauty; insomuch that Sir Thomas Browne might with some reason prefer it to the discovery of the new world.

William Harvey was descended from a respectable family in the county of Kent. His father, Thomas Harvey, had seven sons and two daughters. Five of the sons were brought up to a commercial life, and engaged in the Turkey trade, by which they acquired plentiful fortunes. William, the eldest son, who happily for mankind, chose a literary profession, was born at Folkstone, in Kent, on the first of April, 1578. At ten years of age he was sent to the grammar school in Canterbury; and having here laid a proper foundation of classical learning, he was removed to Gonville and Caius college in Cambridge, and admitted there as a pensioner in May 1593. After spending six years at this university in those academical studies which are preparatory to a learned profession, he went abroad for the acquisition of medical knowledge; and travelling through France and Germany, he fixed himself at Padua. The university of this city was then in the height of its reputation for the study of physic; for which it was principally indebted to Fabricius ab Aquapendente, the professor of anatomy, whose lectures Harvey attended with the utmost diligence; as he did likewise those of Minadous in the practice of medicine, and Casserius in surgery. Here he took his doctor's degree, the diploma for which, drawn up in extraordinary terms of approbation, is dated April 25, 1602, when Harvey had just completed his twenty-fourth year.

In the course of the same year he returned to his own country; and after having again graduated at Cambridge, he settled in the practice of his profession at London. At the age of twenty-six he married the daughter of Launcelot Browne, M.D. by whom he never had any children. How long she lived with him we are not informed; but from a bequest in the will of John Harvey, the doctor's brother, it appears that she was living in 1645.

In 1604 he was admitted a candidate of the college of physicians, and was elected fellow about three years after. About this time the governors of St. Bartholomew's hospital made an order, that on the decease of Dr. Wilkinfon, physician to that charity, Dr. Harvey should succeed him in his office; which event took place the next year. A more important circumstance in the life of this great man occurred in the year 1615, when the college of physicians appointed him reader of the anatomical and chirurgical lectures founded by lord Lumley and Dr. Caldwell. It was in the course of these lectures, that he first publicly delivered his new doctrines concerning the circulation; as sufficiently appears from some MSS. of his, still extant, in which the principal propositions concerning that important fact are laid down; and likewise from his referring to the lectures in the dedication of his book to the college of physicians.

ficians. The index of his MS. *De Anatomia Universa*, preserved in the British Museum, which contains these propositions, is dated as early as April 16, 17, 18; 1616; but the year 1619 is usually supposed the time of his first openly disclosing his opinions on the subject. That this great discovery was first made public in an anatomical school at London, is certainly a very honourable circumstance in the literary history of that metropolis; which, however celebrated as the seat of opulence and splendour, has not been in general considered as a nursery of science.

The character of Harvey now began to recommend him to the notice of the court, and he was appointed physician to king James I. though in what precise year we are not able to ascertain. From a letter of the king to Harvey, dated February 3, 1623, it appears, that he had been for some time physician extraordinary to this majesty; who, as a mark of singular favour, grants him permission to consult with the ordinary physicians concerning his health, and promises to constitute him one of that number on the first vacancy; which, however, did not take place till seven years after, in the next reign. In the year 1627, he was appointed one of the elects of the college of physicians; and in 1628, his doctrine of the circulation, which had been gradually maturing for several years, during a series of patient experiment and cautious reasoning, was first committed to the press at Frankfort. The choice of this city for the place of publication is supposed to have arisen from its celebrated fairs, by means of which, books printed there were rapidly circulated throughout all Germany, and the greatest part of Europe. The great commotions this work excited in the learned world, the attempts of some to refute his arguments, and of others to rob him of the honour of original discovery, will be more properly displayed when we come to the separate consideration of his literary character. I shall now only observe, that notwithstanding the rank he held in his profession, and the favourable reception of his opinions by his brethren of the faculty at home, such is the general prejudice against an innovator, that we find him complaining to a friend, that his practice considerably declined after the publication of his book.

The memoirs of Harvey are succeeded by those of Francis Glisson, which conclude the volume.

Should this work meet with the public approbation, Mr. Aikin intimates a design of pursuing the same plan through the subsequent period, where not only the objects become more interesting, but the information more copious. As the work appears to be written with a laudable attention, we cannot doubt of its receiving the general encouragement of the faculty,

*Experi-*

*Experiments, establishing a Criterion between Mucaginous and Purulent Matter; and an Account of the Retrograde Motions of the Absorbent Vessels of Animal Bodies in some Diseases.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell.

**T**HIS small treatise is the posthumous publication of Mr. Charles Darwin, who lately died at Edinburgh, where he was studying physic, before he had completed the twentieth year of his age. We are informed, that the Experiments establishing a Criterion between Mucaginous and Purulent Matter obtained a gold medal from the Æsculapian Society at that place. In this Dissertation the author begins with exposing the fallacy of the several modes which have been hitherto recommended for ascertaining the difference between mucus and purulent matter, and he then proceeds to relate a number of experiments for establishing a more certain test. From the whole he has deduced the following conclusions :

‘ 1. Pus and mucus are both soluble in the vitriolic acid, though in very different proportions, pus being much the less soluble. 2, 30, 1, 29.

‘ 2. The addition of water to either of these compounds decomposes it; the mucus thus separated, either swims on the mixture, or forms large flocci in it; whereas the pus falls to the bottom, and forms on agitation a uniform turbid mixture. 2, 1, 6, 30, 5, &c.

‘ 3. Pus is diffusible through a diluted vitriolic acid, though mucus is not; the same occurs with water, or a solution of sea salt. 3, 4, 5, 28, 35.

‘ 4. Nitrous acid dissolves both pus and mucus; water added to the solution of pus produces a precipitate; and the fluid above becomes clear and green; while water and the solution of mucus form a dirty-coloured fluid. 31, 24, 5.

‘ 5. Alkaline lixivium dissolves (though sometimes with difficulty) mucus, and generally pus.

‘ 6. Water precipitates pus from such a solution, but does not mucus. 9, 15, 16.

‘ 7. Where alkaline lixivium does not dissolve pus, it still distinguishes it from mucus; as it then prevents its diffusion through water. 32.

‘ 8. Coagulable lymph is neither soluble in diluted nor concentrated vitriolic acid. 17, 18.

‘ 9. Water produces no change on a solution of serum in alkaline lixivium, until after long standing, and then only a very slight sediment appears. 21.

‘ 10. Corrosive sublimate coagulates mucus, but does not pus.’

The above ingenious enquiry is succeeded by an account of the retrograde motions of the absorbent vessels of animal bodies in some



some diseases. This Dissertation had originally been written in Latin, and was intended for his inaugural thesis. It commences with an account of the absorbent system, as described by those anatomists who have investigated the subject. The author next endeavours to evince, that the valves of the absorbent system may suffer their fluids to regurgitate in some diseases; and that there is a communication from the alimentary canal to the bladder, by means of the absorbent vessels. Having adduced various arguments in support of those opinions, the author proceeds to explain the phenomena of the diabetes, and some diarrhæas, with those of dropsies and cold sweats; and he farther confirms the doctrine of retrograde motion by the translation of matter, chyle, milk, and urine, and by the operation of purging drugs applied externally. He afterwards enumerates the circumstances by which the fluids, that are effused by the retrograde motions of the absorbent vessels, are distinguished; and delivers a synopsis of diseases which originate from the retrograde motions of the absorbent vessels; tracing this doctrine through the retrograde motions of the alimentary canal, those of the absorbent system, and the arterial system; to which are subjoined some observations on the retrograde motions of vegetable juices.

The author next answers some objections which may be made against the doctrine of retrograde motion; reciting afterwards the causes which induce the retrograde motions of animal vessels; and mentioning the medicines by which the natural motions are restored. To the Dissertation are subjoined some queries, with which we shall present our medical readers.

‘ 1. As the first six of these patients had adue discharge of urine, and of the natural colour, was not the seat of the disease confined to some part of the thorax; and the swelling of the legs rather a symptom of the obstructed circulation of the blood, than of a paralysis of the cellular lymphatics of those parts ?

‘ 2. When the original disease is a general anasarca, do not the cutaneous lymphatics always become paralytic at the same time with the cellular ones, by their greater sympathy with each other ? And hence the paucity of urine, and the great thirst, distinguish this kind of dropsey ?

‘ 3. In the anasarca of the lungs, when the disease is not very great, though the patients have considerable difficulty of breathing at their first lying down, yet after a minute or two their breath becomes easy again; and the same occurs at their first rising. Is not this owing to the time necessary for the fluid in the cells of the lungs to change its place, so as the least to incommode respiration in the new attitude ?

‘ 4. In the dropsey of the pericardium does not the patient bear the horizontal or perpendicular attitude with equal ease ?

Does

Does this circumstance distinguish the dropsy of the pericardium from that of the lungs and of the thorax?

5. Do the universal sweats distinguish the dropsy of the pericardium, or of the thorax? And those, which cover the upper parts of the body only, the anasarca of the lungs?

6. When in the dropsy of the thorax, the patient endeavours to lie down, does not the extravasated fluid compress the upper parts of the bronchia, and totally preclude the access of air to every part of the lungs; whilst in the perpendicular attitude the inferior parts of the lungs only are compressed? Does not something similar to this occur in the anasarca of the lungs, when the disease is very great, and thus prevent those patients also from lying down?

7. As a principal branch of the fourth cervical nerve of the left side, after having joined a branch of the third and of the second cervical nerves, descending between the subclavian vein and artery, is received in a groove formed for it in the pericardium, and is obliged to make a considerable turn outwards to go over the prominent part of it, where the point of the heart is lodged, in its course to the diaphragm; and as the other phrenic nerve of the right side has a straight course to the diaphragm; and as many other considerable branches of this fourth pair of cervical nerves are spread on the arms; does not a pain in the left arm distinguish a disease of the pericardium, as in the angina pectoris, or in the dropsy of the pericardium? And does not a pain or weakness in both arms distinguish the dropsy of the thorax?

8. Do not the dropsies of the thorax and pericardium frequently exist together, and thus add to the uncertainty and fatality of the disease?

9. Might not the foxglove be serviceable in hydrocephalus internus, in hydrocele, and in white swellings of the joints?

The whole of this treatise discovers so much ingenuity, and such a degree of judgment, in the prosecution of physiological enquiries, as justly merit that approbation which the author can no longer enjoy; and it is to be regretted that a youth endued with those talents was snatched so prematurely from the world.

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*The Valentinian's Bath Guide; or, the Means of obtaining long Life and Health. By Philip Thicknesse. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Dodsley.*

SINCE the appearance of the ever-memorable *Bath Guide*, by the ingenious Mr. Ansty, we do not remember that any kind assistant has taken upon him the arduous task of *stabbing grown gentlemen and ladies to dance*, about the city of Bath. Mr. Philip Thicknesse, however, well known for his  
entertaining

entertaining travels into France, &c. and many other diverting performances, convinced, as we may suppose, that two guides, like two heads, are better than one, has, in the pamphlet now before us, graciously condescended to instruct ignorant invalids in all that is necessary to be known by inquisitive patients with regard to the waters, the physicians, the apothecaries, the surgeons, the every thing, in short, that man, woman, or child, could wish or desire to be acquainted with.

This facetious old boy seems to have adopted, and perhaps not unwisely, Swift's favourite maxim of, *vive la bagatelle*, and to be resolved to divert himself and his readers with every occurrence that happens, and every odd whim and conceit that strikes his fertile imagination. He opens with a short rambling and desultory account of the Bath waters, and observes, very humorously, that,

'If any thing is due to the founders of Bath, it is most certainly due to the hogs who rooted up the springs, and not to the king who attended the herd. It is not therefore king Bladud the Founder whose memory ought to be recorded, but Bladud's hogs the Finders of these hot springs, from which so much benefit has arose to the city of Bath in particular, and to particular people from all parts of Europe. 'Give the devil his due,' is an old adage, and if the devil is in the swine, the discovering of the Bath waters was a devilish lucky thing, and a thing in which king Bladud was no more concerned than any other private patient who receives benefit, or a cure, from putting himself into them.'

He then descants very learnedly on the use and qualities of the waters, and observes, that

'A man of fifty therefore should be exceedingly cautious not to eat so largely of solid food as he formerly did, for this is the time in which he must, if he expects to live free from misery, use a prudential or philosophical appetite only, as the natural one does, and ought constitutionally to decline. Indeed one rule may be laid down almost for all men past the first climacteric: it is this—A man who eats of one plain substantial dish only, will never eat too much: it is the variety of meat creating an artificial appetite, when the natural one has been satisfied, which seduces us into a greater quantity of food taken into the stomach, than the stomach has powers to digest: it is not the quality so much as the quantity that injures the constitution.'

In this observation there is nothing very new or striking, as it is what any man of common sense, without a Bath or any other Guide, might easily have discovered. He adds also two or three other sagacious remarks, which might as well have been omitted; such as, that 'to watch the efforts of nature, and assist her when she is unable to do without assistance, is the

the business of a physician: that to live free, and attach ourselves but slightly to human affairs, is the best method of learning to die: that waters poured down in too large quantities, and hastily taken, may be hurtful and dangerous, &c. &c.' These deep reflections of our old traveller put us in mind of the clown in Shakspeare's *As You Like It*, who observes, that it is the property of fire to burn.

Mr. Thicknesse, however, makes us ample amends for any authorial sins either of omission or commission in his fifth chapter, which treats on health and long life, by informing us, that 'Every man who has attained the age of forty has it in his power to double at least that period, or to extend his life far beyond the common age, and that too without feeling the infirmities of years.' This is, no doubt, a secret which many of our readers, we believe, would gladly be *let into*, and would wish indeed to be thoroughly acquainted with—Hear then what the great Dr. Thicknesse prescribes:

'I am myself (says he) turned of sixty, and in general, though I have lived in various climates, and suffered severely both in body and mind, yet, having always partaken of the breath of young women whenever they lay in my way, I feel none of those infirmities which so often strike my eyes and ears in this great city, of sickness, by men many years younger.'

'It may be worth while to examine what degree of probability there is in procuring long life, by so pleasing a prescription, and particularly in the Bath Guide, because there is no place else in Britain where the prescription is so easily made up, to be so repeatedly had, nor where it may be so conveniently conveyed by the most lovely of the sex. For my own part, I confess my sincere belief in the inscription, and, in some part, of the prescription itself, and own that what I have till very lately thought tended to the destruction of the old and infirm frequenters of the balls, and crowded rooms of Bath, has in fact been the means of preserving their lives.'

'There is a spirit in plants, peculiar to each species, absolutely inimitable. If therefore the smell of vegetables has such wonderful effects, much more powerful effects surely may be expected from animal odours; for if diseases are conveyed from man to man, by the breath (a fact which cannot be disputed), why may we not conclude that youthful breath conveys health and long life to the aged? Every body has experienced the sweetness of the breath of cows, and for that reason it is esteemed wholesome; and as the fragrant of young people's breath, who are brought up under a proper regimen, falls little short of that of cows, it is natural to suppose, that it is productive of the same virtue. The brisk and lively motion in the blood of young people, is the cause of their health, vigour, and growth; and I see no reason to doubt but that the re-respiring their breath may rouse the sluggish circulation of men advanced in years.'

Whoever,

Whoever, therefore, is desirous of health and long life, has nothing to do, we see, but to go immediately to Bath, and frequent the long rooms, especially on ball nights, when the sweet-breathed young people are got together. This, no doubt, is a very pleasing and agreeable medicine, though by no means a new one, or the invention of Dr. Thicknesse, the whole process, with a long account of its efficacy and powers, having been long since laid down in a pamphlet published several years ago, called *Hernippus Redivivus*. Those, however, who are not in possession of the original pamphlet may have recourse to Mr. Thicknesse's *Redivivus* revived in the Bath Guide.

In his chapter on bilious disorders (for he treats, as we before observed, of every thing) our author tells us, which to be sure it was of the utmost consequence to know, how many gall stones passed through his bladder; he gives us a print of one of them, and informs us how we may best get rid of them, viz. by taking 500 drops of laudanum in a day. This method, he assures us, is infallible. We would not however, on his sole authority, venture to prescribe it as such. We cannot, however, pass over one or two of the doctor's most curious and successful experiments.

'I have more than once, however, (says he) caused the stone to pass, or return into the bladder, by lying upon my belly on a table, and a heavy person sitting on my back; but much oftener, and that too thirty years ago, when being suddenly attacked with it, on the days I was engaged to dance at the ball here, and then, rather than lose my partner, or my diversion, I have run over the parade, bent double with pain, to the apothecaries, and taken forty drops of laudanum, and afterwards enjoyed my evening's entertainment, without any inconvenience from the disorder, or the medicine which removed it.'

In our author's pleasant chapter on Wine and Drinking we find the following salutary admonition, which we would recommend to the notice of all good toppers.

'In youth wine may not be necessary, but in age it certainly is; and the best way to find its effects, and even to receive benefit from it, is, to exceed now and then a little of the usual quantity; this gives a kind of flip to nature, and winds the machine up from a sluggishness that age and indolence are apt to occasion. I am inclined indeed to think, that a man may set his face even against the approach of age, and push it off for some time, by determining to do as he has heretofore done. We should attend more than we do to the effects of a little excess, not only of wine, but of more than usual exercise, and observe whether we do not feel younger, and better, after the use of one or both. For myself, I have often arose from my

bed with the inactive indolent feels of age, but from some sudden emotions of the mind, the conversation of an unexpected convivial friend, or some family affairs, I have been so awakened, that the next day I have felt as active, strong, and youthful, as at any period of my life. A man who loves his bottle in Switzerland is highly esteemed; at Naples or Madrid he is dreaded; but I hardly ever knew one in England who loved it, who was not at bottom a generous, honest, and well-meaning, if not a brilliant man.'

To which he subjoins an observation on Horace, 'who (he says) notwithstanding he has said so much against full meals, was himself no enemy to full glasses.'

His remarks on Dr. Charlton, Dr. Oliver, Dr. Lucas, and the rest of the Bath physicians, are rather dry and tedious, serving only to fill up the book. We are soon, however, relieved from them by the author's diverting observations on promiscuous bathing, the music of Bath, &c.

This performance is, upon the whole, an agreeable *sarrago*, and may probably be more useful to Bath patients, by the amusement it will afford them, than a consultation of physicians, especially as it is rather cheaper, and will cost them but three shillings and six pence, which may defray in part the ingenious author's expences on ball nights, when he is inclined to prolong his life by the breath of virgins.

*The Passion; or, a Descriptive and Critical Narrative of the Incidents, as they occurred, on each Day of the Week in which Christ's Sufferings are commemorated; with Reflections calculated for religious Improvement, By Thomas Knowles, D. D. 12mo. 3s. sewed. L. Davis.*

**T**HIS learned writer has traced the various scenes of our Saviour's Passion, as it is most probable they were exhibited on each day of the week; has endeavoured to settle the harmony of the four evangelists, whose accounts might otherwise appear to be confused or misplaced, and has subjoined to the narrative of each day's occurrences some reflections, tending to promote that serious frame of mind which the solemnity of the season requires.

He begins with the occurrences of the day distinguished by the name of Palm-Sunday; on which, he supposes, our Saviour made his public entry into Jerusalem, and, as he had done at a preceding passover, John ii. 13. drove the buyers and sellers out of the temple. This is more conformable to the history of St. John, xii. 1. 12. than the opinion of bishop Pearce, who imagines that these events happened on the second day,

day, our Monday, of the Passion Week. For the evangelist tells us, that he came to Bethany six days before the passover; and the bishop himself says, in his note on Matt. xxvi. 2. that the passover began on the Thursday evening.

The next morning, on Monday, our Saviour, according to the present harmony, went again to Jerusalem, and, in the way, passed a sentence of perpetual barrenness upon the useless fig-tree, and again drove some traders out of the temple. See Mark xi. 15. — *Καί ποτε ὄμωρ*, Mar. xi. 13. he observes, after bishop Kidder, is the time of gathering figs; as *ὁ Καί ποτε τὸν καρπὸν*, Matt. xxi. 34. is the time of gathering fruit. This interpretation of St. Mark's words does not seem to leave any difficulty remaining.

On the Tuesday morning our Saviour went again to Jerusalem, entered into the temple, and began, as usual, to instruct the people; his malicious opposers endeavour to ensnare him by insidious questions; he refutes their cavils, foretels the destruction of Jerusalem, delivers several apposite parables, and concludes his instructions with a pathetic description of the day of judgment.

On Wednesday, the author supposes, that our Saviour was preaching in the temple, as on other days, for some time, though not the whole day, (see Luke xxi. 38.) and that he afterwards retired again to Bethany, and spent part of the day in the house of Simon the leper; while he was there, a certain woman brought an alabaster-box of precious ointment, and poured it on his head. Some harmonists have supposed, that this occurrence is the same with that which is mentioned by St. Luke vii. 36; but our author thinks, that the transactions are not the same, that the circumstances are very different, and that this woman was neither Mary Magdalene, nor Mary the sister of Lazarus, but some one whose name is not recorded.—After supper, Jesus washed the feet of his disciples.—Several commentators have placed this transaction after the celebration of the passover, at the last supper on the Thursday evening; but our author, with more probability, supposes, that this was the same supper with that mentioned John xiii. which is expressly said to be before the feast of the passover. Some have also imagined that this supper was no other than the paschal supper, because, in St. John xiii. 38,

‘ Our Saviour’s expression is said to be, the cock shall not crow till thou hast denied me thrice; which, say they, implies that it was to be on that very night. But, as Dr. Lighfoot answers the conjecture, it may be observed that Peter denied Christ but once before the cock crow (Mark xiv. 68, 69, 70.); so that our Saviour’s meaning here must be, not that he

should deny him three times before any cock crew again, but that he should deny him thrice within the time of cock-crowing, which was the fourth part of the night; whether of that or of any other is not yet said. And that this is the meaning, is still more evident from Mark xiv. 30. where it is said, the cock shall not crow twice. Besides, in St. John's account of this supper it is only said, 'the cock shall not crow;' but in Matthew and Mark, as we shall see afterwards, when it refers to the very night, when his denial was, after the paschal supper, it is said, 'this night, before the cock crow.' Whence it is to be understood, that Christ forewarns him of this at two different times; first, at this supper at Bethany, on the Wednesday evening, and there the emphasis lies on the word *thrice*, and next, at the passover supper, when Christ puts it upon the words, *this night*.

In the mean time the great council of the nation was assembled at the house of Caiphas, where they had been consulting how they might take Jesus by stratagem. In the midst of their debates Judas came into the assembly, and offered his assistance \*. During his absence Jesus discoursed with his disciples on the glorious consequences which would ensue from the basest designs; 'Now is the Son of Man glorified,' &c.

On Thursday, the first day of unleavened bread, Jesus sent Peter and John to Jerusalem, to enquire for a room, where he and his disciples might eat the passover. After the sun was set, the time appointed for the celebration of the passover, Jesus, with his disciples, arrived at Jerusalem; and sat down at the table; and when the ceremony of eating the paschal lamb was finished, he introduced a new sacrament, instead of the other, which was to give way to it. Upon their leaving the house, it is probable, that Judas slipped away from them, and went privately to the high-priest's palace. This seems to have given Jesus occasion to declare, that they would all of them be offended on his account, that very night. Peter was hurt at such a declaration, and professed an inviolable attachment to his master. This self-confidence had been twice corrected before, (viz. on the Thursday morning, John xiii. and again the same day, according to Luke xii.); but the warning had not made him suspect the treachery of his heart; upon which Jesus repeated it a third time, 'Verily, I say unto thee, that even in this night, before the cock crow twice, thou shalt deny me thrice.' — Having passed over the brook Kedron, they came to Gethsemane, where Jesus was in an

\* Jesus was betrayed on Wednesday, and suffered on Friday. This is assigned as one reason why the primitive Christians fasted on these two days.

agony,



agony, offered up his private ejaculations to his Father, was apprehended, carried to the high-priest's palace, and placed before the tribunal. Being condemned to die, the council broke up, and he was left, for the remainder of the night; to the merciless treatment of the rabble. During these transactions Peter and John were admitted into the palace of the high-priest; and the former thrice denied his master.

On Friday, ('called Good Friday from those unspeakable good things which were purchased for us by the death of Christ,') early in the morning, the sanhedrim met again in consultation. Judas made his appearance among them, and returned the wages of his perfidy. Jesus was bound, led away to the Roman governor, condemned, and soon after nine o'clock in the morning carried to Calvary, and, a little before noon, crucified. 'That no one instance of barbarity might be omitted, instead of the narcotic, usually administered to dying criminals, to sooth their agonies, the soldiers prepared for him a mixture of vinegar and gall to drink; but when he had tasted of the nauseous composition, he refused to drink it. Some of his friends, however, had, at the same time, provided a comfortable potion of wine mingled with myrrh; but he refused likewise to drink of that, for he despised the pain, and wanted not to alleviate its severity by an intoxicating draught.' This, our author thinks, will reconcile the seeming difference between Matthew and St. Mark, concerning the potion given him.—At nine began the supernatural darkness, which lasted three hours, over all the land of Judea.

'This state of the several transactions, before and after the darkness, will obviate an objection, which has been more than once insidiously suggested against this part of the history, and remove the difficulties that might be raised against the answer of a celebrated apologist to it: for when former cavillers object, that if the darkness were so intense as it is represented, our Saviour could not have distinguished his mother and John, nor could the soldiers so easily have found the hyssop and sponge and vinegar which they offered to him; and when the latter advocate for christianity answers, that the darkness might not be so great, but that the people about the cross might be seen and known, and that Jesus spoke to his mother and the beloved disciple during the continuance of it; it is evident that both have mistaken the true state of the case: had they consulted the harmony of the evangelists, they would have found, that Jesus recommended his mother and the beloved disciple to each other before the darkness came on, and that the vinegar was not offered till it was over, but that during the darkness, which was doubtless very great and terrifying, nothing was either said or done, for Jesus continued that whole time silent and passive.'

It was on Friday, about three o'clock in the afternoon when our Saviour died. 'This,' our author remarks, 'was the preparation-day for the paschal festival, then falling upon the Jewish sabbath, and observed with great solemnity as a high day.' It was called the preparation-day, says Lightfoot, either because the Jews prepared themselves for the sabbath, or rather, because they prepared provisions to be eaten on the sabbath—It is called *παρασκευή το σάββατο*, John xix. 14, that is, probably, the day before the sabbath in the passover-week, or the paschal Friday.

Totus hic dies, præsertim verò ab horâ tertiâ, erat *παρασκευή το σάββατο*, vel totius insequentis hebdomadæ (notandum obiter hæc verba non denotare præparationem sive agni Paschalis, sive populi ad agnum comedendum, sed præparationem eduliorum comedendum hebdomadâ Paschali) et vespéra diei erat *παρασκευή* sabbati crastinò insequentis. Lightf. Horæ.

In this work the learned author seems to proceed upon this principle, that when we meet with *similar* occurrences in our Saviour's history, attended with *different* circumstances, we may suppose, that they were different transactions. This appears from what he says concerning the woman with the alabaster-box, our Saviour's driving the traders out of the temple, &c. This rule, however, should be followed with caution. Where there are some similar circumstances, and some different ones, it is more natural to suppose, that the facts themselves are the same, and only related in a different manner, as any two writers would do, than to imagine that they are different events; for in different facts we can hardly expect to find several particulars exactly alike; but the same facts may be combined with an infinite variety of collateral circumstances totally different from one another, yet perfectly consistent. This mode of interpretation, adopted by our author, is particularly explained and illustrated by Dr. Macknight. Prel. Obs. iv. and has its advantages. But we should not have recourse to it, without an absolute necessity.

This work is very properly calculated to give the unlearned reader a clear and distinct idea of the most material incidents, as they occurred, in the course of our Saviour's Passion; and will be the more useful, as there is not (nor indeed could there be) any chronological order in the arrangement of the second lessons, appointed to be read in the church on Passion Week.

*A View*

*A View of Northumberland. Vol. II. By W. Hutchinson.*  
4to. 1l. 1s. in boards. Macgowan.

**I**N our Review for August, 1778, we gave an account of the first volume of this work, which contained an accurate description of antiquities, and a recital of many anecdotes that are interesting to curiosity.

The present volume commences with the author's repassing the Tweed by Coldstream Bridge, which, we are informed, is a handsome structure of seven arches. The first object that draws his attention is Wark Castle, situated on a circular eminence formed by art. At what precise time this fortress was built is uncertain; but we find from historical evidence, that it was a place of considerable strength so early as the beginning of the twelfth century. Near it are several intrenchments, some of which are defended by mounds of earth. There is a spot adjoining, called the Battle Place; but from what particular event it obtained that denomination is not known. This fortress being situated on the borders of England and Scotland, was the scene of several military transactions between the two nations. Those Mr. Hutchinson relates from history, and afterwards proceeds to Carham, a place memorable for a battle fought with the Danes, and another afterwards with the Scots. Here was an abbey of Black Canons, subordinate to Kirkham in Yorkshire.

The traveller next arrives at Cornhill, noted for its valuable spaw. At this place formerly stood a castle, the remains of which are surrounded with a ditch. Mr. Hutchinson observes that it has been well situated for defending the passage over the Tweed. South-east of Cornhill is a remarkable encampment, respecting the history of which, however, the author could obtain no certain information.

In Branxton West Field is a column erected as a memorial of the battle fought there on the 9th of September, in the fifth year of the reign of Henry VIII, called the Battle of Flodden Field, from the Scotch encampment on Flodden Hill.

The traveller's route is continued thence to Ford Castle, the seat of Odonel de Ford, in the time of Edward I. Here James IV. of Scotland passed several days in amorous dalliance with the beautiful daughter of Sir William Heron, then proprietor of the castle, at the time when the earl of Surry was fast advancing with the English army, previous to the battle of Flodden Field.

After mentioning Palinsburn, Etah, Tilmouth, Heton, and Twizel Castle, the author presents us with an account of Northam, a pleasant village on the banks of the Tweed. This is

a place of great antiquity, said to have been built by Egfrid, bishop of Lindisfarne, in the year 830.

About half a mile from the church stands the castle, built by Ralph Flambert, bishop of Durham, in the year 1121. It is situated on the brink of a steep rock, the foot of which is washed by the Tweed. In 1203, king John held here a personal conference with William the Lion, king of Scotland, touching the demand made by the latter of the northern counties; and in 1211, the two kings had a second conference, at which was present Ermengard, queen of Scotland; who by her amiable conduct greatly promoted the treaty on which the sovereigns had met. In subsequent reigns this castle was also frequently an object of contention between the two nations.

Mr. Hutchinson next reaches Tweedmouth, noted for the assembly of barons, and others, in the fourth year of Edward I. It is situated at the south end of Berwick Bridge, which consists of sixteen arches, built in the reign of queen Elizabeth: North-west of the present town stood the old castle, a place of great strength in former times, and of which only some scattered fragments remain. Our author gives an accurate account of the contiguous town of Berwick, accompanied with a detail of its history. According to Hector Boethius, Berwick existed as a place of strength in the days of Osbert, the Northumbrian king. It was originally one of the four Scotch boroughs, and continued for many ages a part of the dominions of Scotland, till Edgar, king of that country, gave it to the see of Durham, according to Hollingshead, in honour of St. Cuthbert, under whose banner he had obtained an important victory. This donation was made about the year 1097. It is farther related, that Ralph Flambert, after a vacancy in the see for three years, from the death of William de Carlepho, was consecrated bishop in 1099, who disregarding the gift of Edgar to the church, made an irruption into his territories, when the latter, provoked at his ingratitude, re-assumed the town of Berwick, with its valuable appendages.

From Berwick the traveller directs his course to Holy Island, anciently called Lindisfarne, the sands between which and the continent are passable at low water. Of this place Mr. Hutchinson gives the following account.

There is one small farm of cultivated land upon the island, with some few acres of good pasture ground, capable of improvement; and the rest, by the violence of tempests, is covered with sand. The island chiefly consists of one continued plain; inclining to the south-west. The land on which the village stands rises swiftly from the shore; at the southern point

is a rock of a conical figure, and almost perpendicular, near sixty feet high, having on its lofty crown a small fortress or castle, which makes at once a grotesque and formidable appearance. I did not observe one tree upon the island.

The village consists of a few scattered houses, two of which are inns, the rest chiefly inhabited by fishermen. The shore is excellent for bathing; and the situation at once healthy and romantic: its surprizing it should be so little resorted to. The north and east coasts of the island are formed of perpendicular rocks, the other sides sink by gradual declinations towards the sands. The rock on which the castle stands is accessible only by a winding pass cut on its southern side: the narrow limits of its crown will not admit of many works, the whole strength consisting of a single battery on the south east point, mounted with seven or eight guns, which commands the approach to the island from the sea; but would be of little consequence against a ship of any considerable force. The rest of the summit is taken up with a house for the governor and guard, the walls of which stand on the very brink of the precipice. This fortress, before the use of gunpowder, from its situation, appears to have been impregnable, the superstructures being above the reach of any engine, and the rocks too high to be scaled. The antiquity of this castle is not known, but I should presume it is coeval with the abbey, and was used as a place of resort in times of peril, and a stronghold for the religious, whenever they were disturbed in their holy retreat. The present fortifications appear to be the work of the last century. In the military establishment made by queen Elizabeth for Berwick in 1576, the castle is noted, and a patent for life was granted to Sir William Read, as keeper of the fortresses of Holy Island and Farn, with a yearly payment of 362l. 17s. 6d. per annum.

The cathedral is in the form of a cross, the east and west parts of which are yet standing. The building is rude and heavy, and generally in the worst mode of the early Saxon architecture. The whole is composed of a soft red freestone, which yields much to time, and renders the aspect of the building dark and melancholy.

This island became the seat of episcopacy at a very early period, and is famous for the cell of St. Cuthbert.

Returning from Holy Island, the author had a distant view of Haggerston, at which is an old tower, memorable for being the place where Henry II. in 1131, received the homage of Thomas earl of Lancaster.

The author informs us, that the venerable remains of the castle of Bambrough gave him an idea of the state of palaces and strongholds in the remotest æra of our Saxon ancestors in Britain. The site of this fortress is on the summit of a high rock, of a triangular shape, one of the points projecting into the sea.

Many

“Many of the other buildings (says he) appear to be the work of more modern ages, till you approach the gate-way, which is on the only accessible part of the rock; it was defended by a deep ditch, cut through a narrow neck communicating with the main land, having a draw-bridge: this lays to the south-east, and on the brink of the precipice above the sea there. The gate-way is strengthened by a round tower on each side, from whence passing about twelve paces, which space appears to have been formerly a covered way, you approach a second and much more modern gate, of a much more modern order of building, having a port-culice. After you have passed the second gate, on the left hand, on a lofty point of the rock, stands a very ancient round tower, of great strength, commanding the pass. Assailants having won this approach; entered upon a situation of imminent danger on a tremendous precipice, subject to every kind of annoyance from the besieged, who possessed the round tower. This part of the fortress wears the most ancient countenance, and challenges the Saxons for its origin.”

According to the monkish historians, here stood the castle or palace of the kings of Northumberland; built, as is said, by king Ida, who began his reign in the year 559. Part of the ruins is by some supposed to be the remains of king Ida's work. Mr. Grose, indeed, is of opinion, that those buildings are the work of the Normans, though he admits that there was a fortress or palace here in the Saxon times, and perhaps earlier. Mr. Hutchinson contends, however, that they are of higher antiquity than the Norman epoch; and this opinion he endeavours to establish by the following remarks.

“On what circumstances Mr. Grose grounds this general determination, I cannot discover; most of the northern Norman structures are of excellent masonry; the buildings here are various in figure, materials, modes of arching, windows, bases, and other parts. The round tower I have noted is different in all those matters, from the greatest part of the works; and it is to a common observer marked with much greater antiquity than the Keep or main tower, which I shall next describe. It is impossible to prevent a disagreement in opinion on subjects of this kind; where there is no certain rule to fix determination, it must be the case; I pay the greatest deference to Mr. Grose's judgment, but think he has passed this determination hastily. The keep or chief tower of this fortress is a lofty square structure, of the same model with many Norman fortresses founded in or near the time of the Conqueror; it stands on the crown of the rock, having an open area round it, but most extensive towards the north and north-east points. Mr. Wallis says, that from the style of the architecture of its base, being of the Doric order, it is believed to be of Roman work. He adds, ‘that it is well known the Saxons erected their castles when they could

on Roman foundations, and gave them the name of *Burg* or *Brough*. It is very probable the Romans held this part of the country to be of singular importance to their navy; but that they built castles here is not by any means admissible. They might erect small towers, like those whose remains appear on the wall of Severus, on places of special import. I do not doubt the Saxons would enter upon the Roman fortifications, for the same reasons the Normans after them made such choice: the northern counties furnish a multitude of instances that the Normans possessed themselves of such situations; but in those places the Roman vallum and foss only served for outworks to the Norman structures. The remains of the Roman station are visible at many of these fortresses. In most of the places I have observed, the Roman works are retained as a platform or outward area, to the south sides of the castles. In the northern stations, of the largest size, there are no remains of castles.

At whatever time this fortress was built, it has furnished history with many memorable events. Of those the first we meet with is in 642, when the place was besieged by Penda, king of Mercia.

Of Dunstanborough Castle nothing remains but the outworks on two sides to the land, viz. the west and south; which with stupendous cliffs to the sea inclose a plain nearly square, consisting of about nine acres. The rocks to the north are perpendicular, of a columnary form, about thirty foot in height, black and horrible. On the south side is a gateway, built in a very remarkable style. It is formed by a circular arch, with a portico and interior gate, and is defended by two heavy semi-circular towers, which unite with the superstructure of the gate-way. Those towers, after rising about twenty foot, and containing two tiers of apartments, support turrets of a square form, now so ruinous as not to allow a conjecture what was their original height. This wall extends to the cliffs on the shore, is guarded by two square bastions, with a small sally-port, and is terminated by a square tower with a gate-way.

The date of this castle is fixed by authors to the beginning of the fourteenth century; and the founder is said to have been Thomas earl of Lancaster, general of the confederate army which opposed king Edward II.

Mr. Hutchinson next describes Alnwick Castle, the celebrated mansion of the duke of Northumberland. It is believed that an edifice stood upon this spot in the time of the Romans: for when part of the dungeon or keep was taken down to be repaired some years ago, under the walls were discovered the foundations of other buildings, which lay in a different direction from the present; and some of the stones appeared to have

have Roman mouldings. The dungeon or keep of the present castle is supposed to have been founded in the Saxon times.

The account of Alnwick Castle is followed by a history of the family of Northumberland; after which the author proceeds to the Castle of Warkworth, another ancient structure, in the possession of the same family, and which, with the Hermitage, affords subject for particular description.

The places next mentioned are, Felton, Brinkburn Priory, Nether Wilton, Stanton, Long Wilton, Bolham, Milford, the Abbey of Newminster, Mollleston, and Morpeth. The ancient baronial castle here is now in ruins, little remaining of it but an old gate-way tower, with part of the outward wall which inclosed the area and interior buildings. It stands on a lofty eminence, the southern side of which is very steep, and washed by the river Wansbeck; the northern secured by a deep valley.

From Morpeth the traveller makes an excursion to Bothall, four miles distant, and situated near the river Wansbeck, the banks of which are lofty, and clothed with fine hanging woods. This was the baronial inheritance of the family of Ogles. The castle is placed on a considerable eminence, surrounded by a very deep vale; hanging woods forming an amphitheatre at the distance of about half a mile. Its remains chiefly consist of a great gate-way, flanked on the north side by two polygonal towers, fifty-three feet high; and on the south-west angle by a square turret, the height of which is sixty feet. The site of this castle to the south is very lofty, on the brink of a rock, the foot of which is washed by the river. The east and west sides of the eminence have been defended by a moat.

The succeeding objects of detail are, Shipwash, Cambois, Ashington, Newbrigg, Creswell, Widdrington Castle, Cawsey Park, Long Horsley, Cockle Park Tower, Whalton, Ogle Castle, Kirkley, Ponteland, Wolsington, Gosforth, Blagdon, Stannington, Bedlington, Bebside, Newsham and South Blyth, Cramlington, Seaton Delaval, Ford Castle, and Tynmouth.

The castle of Tynmouth stands on a peninsula formed of stupendous rocks, on the north side of the mouth of the river Tyne. It was originally a priory, but converted into a fortress by William the Conqueror.

The time when this monastery was founded, as well as the founder, are both uncertain; but it is doubtless a place of great antiquity. It suffered three depredations from the Danes; the first about the end of the eighth century; the second under Hunguer and Hubba, in the reign of king Ethelred; and the



the third in the reign of Athelstan. Many great personages have been interred at this place; among whom are Malcolm king of Scots, and his son Edward, slain near Alnwick in 1094.

Our author afterwards gives an account of North Shields, Well's-End, Carr Ville, Little Benton and Long Benton, Heaton, Byker, and Newcastle.

It is generally admitted by antiquaries that Newcastle is of Roman origin; but concerning the name by which it was distinguished there are various opinions; and no altars or inscriptions have been discovered which can determine the question. Thus much, however, is certain, that the wall of Severus passed through the town: and remains of it have frequently been traced by workmen in digging the foundations of buildings. Pandon Gate bears singular marks of antiquity. The superstructure is of different workmanship and model from any others on the town wall. The arches are circular, and there appears that natural decay which might happen in such a number of years. By the dimensions which Mr. Hutchinson took of this gate-way, he found that it nearly corresponds with the other posts or gates in the Roman wall. The first name by which Newcastle is mentioned in history, is Monkchester; whence it appears to have been noted for the habitation of religious men. In the reign of Henry VIII. this town is said to have exceeded in the strength and magnificence of its works all the cities of England, and most places in Europe. The castle, it is universally agreed, was built by Robert Curthouse, son of William the Conqueror, in the year 1080, on his return from the Scotch expedition.

The description of Newcastle is succeeded by an account of some places in its neighbourhood, with which the narrative concludes. Annexed is a recital of ancient customs prevailing in the county of Northumberland, relative to which the author delivers some plausible conjectures.

It would be doing injustice to Mr. Hutchinson not to acknowledge, that we have perused this volume with great pleasure. In general, the various places in his route are described with perspicuity and precision; and while he gives so ample an account of their present state, he has not failed to delineate also the changes they have undergone in former times. He every where renders them interesting, by a detail of the events with which they are connected, either in historical narrative, or other documents of sufficient authority. We must likewise observe, in commendation of the work, that it contains many excellent engravings of the most remarkable objects in Northumberland.

*Elements*

*Elements of Fortification.* By Lewis Lochee. 8vo. 6s. in boards. Cadell.

**T**HIS is a general treatise on the theory of fortification, containing the several definitions, and modes of construction, with remarks. The French have produced a great many works on this subject, and by them the modern improvements in it have chiefly been made. We have perhaps had no more than two in English that are of any consideration, namely, Muller's Treatise, and a work in quarto, intitled, "The Elements of Fortification," and which was published in 1746, under the patronage of the late duke of Cumberland, by an anonymous author. In the performance now before us, the author has adopted the plan of the latter very elegant work.

The work contains, in sixteen sections, the definitions of fortifications, fortresses, and the modes of representation; the description of the several lines, angles, and parts of fortresses, both regular and irregular, of the principal body of the place; and all sorts of outworks, and advanced or detached works; then follow the constructions of all the works, according to several masters, with the maxims in fortification; also of mines, countermines, and citadels, with an account of the systems of some of the principal authors; and lastly, directions with regard to the use of the colours employed in drawing and embellishing plans and profiles.

Our author has executed his work on a methodical plan, and accompanied the descriptions and constructions with many pertinent remarks. Some trifling inaccuracies have escaped him, and particularly one which seems to be habitual, namely, in stating the four terms of a proportion, he frequently places the consequent before the antecedent, as for instance, "The proportion the French measure (of a foot) bears to the English, is, as 107 to 114, that is nearly as 15 to 16," where the terms ought to be inverted, and made to run thus, as 114 to 107, or nearly as 16 to 15.

The following dissertation on fortresses, extracted from our author's preface, we give as a specimen of his style, which is the less exceptionable when we consider the author as a foreigner.

• Except a few writers, who, from a love of singularity, are apt to question every received opinion and established practice, none have ventured to deny the importance of fortresses, as a useful defence for all states both against foreign and domestic enemies. Even Machiavel, the principal declaimer against them, admits, "That a prince may find his advantage in erect-  
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ing fortresses, though possessed of powerful armies; as they will enable him to withstand an enemy, till his own forces are properly arrayed."

"The Greeks, the Romans, and the Carthaginians, who were best acquainted with military and political science, considered fortresses as necessary, not only for the preservation of conquered provinces, but for the safety of established kingdoms and empires. "Though triumphant Rome (says the duke d'Ussant) found herself mistress of the world; though the strength of her own armies, and the profound submission paid her by all nations, had placed her out of the reach of immediate danger; yet she fortified—not because she was afraid, but because she would have nothing to fear; that, if occasion required, she might, at least, be able to retire within herself, and there make a stand till victory should again declare in her favour."

"When a state destitute of fortresses, is attacked, it must place its whole dependence on a single battle, the loss of which would probably involve it in irrecoverable ruin; for the moment the enemy obtained the victory, he would become master of the country. But to so helpless a situation those states cannot be suddenly reduced that have fortresses strongly situated and amply provided, whither their routed army might retire, and where they might have time to rally, and receive succours from their allies, or from that part of their own country of which the enemy, checked by such obstacles, could not make himself master. It has, indeed, often happened, that the forces of a state, though defeated in the first encounter, have been enabled by well situated fortresses, not only to recover themselves and rescue their country, but even to drive out the invaders. If Darius and the other powerful princes, whom Alexander in the lust of dominion attacked, had been provided with places of security, capable of a vigorous defence, that rapid conqueror would not, perhaps, have surmounted the difficulties and obstacles of successive sieges; for, as history informs us, success seemed much inclined to abandon him when he sat down before Tyre.

"The defence made at Spoleto, and a few other small fortresses, stopped Hannibal on his march against the Romans; Rome herself, even in the days of her prosperity, was baffled before Numantia; the city of Vienna, in 1529, resisted the efforts of Solyman the Second; and Charles V. almost always victorious in the field, found the walls of Marseilles and Metz the boundaries of his conquests. On the contrary, if there had been a few fortresses in England, when William the Norman landed, it would not have been lost with the loss of a single battle; and if, during the contention between the houses of York and Lancaster, the same resources of defence had subsisted, faction would not have caused the cruel desolation of 1471, nor the throne have been vacant thrice in six months.

"But though history abounds with melancholy proofs of the overthrow of states for the want of fortified places, yet it is not without

without instances of the ruin of others by the erection of too many: whence it may be concluded, that a country without fortresses is not in a much greater state of danger, than that which has more than it can properly maintain; for though some preventive forts, for the reasons already assigned, are necessary for every state, yet it does not from thence follow, that the difficulty of attacking a state can be increased by the number and extent of incumbering fortresses. The fortresses of a state should, be cautiously proportioned to the troops which it can raise and is able to maintain; and these should always be sufficient to garrison its defences, form guards for its towns, and an army for the field; for, without an army, fortresses can no longer protect a state than whilst its magazines afford a plentiful subsistence.

The situation, extent, power, and interest of a state determine the number of fortresses necessary against foreign adversaries; the form and date of its government, the different sects of religion, and the natural bent of the people, regulate them with regard to domestic enemies. The situation of Great Britain requires but few fortresses: severed by the ocean from all other countries, she is in little danger from the projects of her enemies, who will always find a descent rendered extremely difficult, by many shelves and sand-banks, by the scarcity of good roads and harbours, and by the violent winds usually blowing upon and from her coast; in the enjoyment of all which natural advantages, she has more to fear from her domestic than from her foreign enemies, who can hardly ever hope to succeed in any design against her, without the concurrence of the other. But lest much security should prove her ruin, it will be her wisdom not only not to confide too much in those natural advantages, but also, by such methods of defence as art supplies, to render herself still more difficult of access: for though it is known, that the enterprizes formed against her by the French and Spaniards have never proved successful, yet it must be remembered, that the Romans and the Saxons, through her ignorance or neglect of artificial defences, made settlements in her country, and actually changed her government.

It is a maxim in war, to keep an enemy at as great a distance as possible: fortresses should, therefore, be erected on the frontiers, beyond which no enemy can penetrate till those fortresses are taken. If, in powerful and extensive states, a single chain of fortresses is not a sufficient security, a second, and even a third chain must be added. For want of well-situated fortresses on the frontiers of Bohemia, the king of Prussia, in 1757, penetrated to the centre of that kingdom, and invested Prague; and there is some reason to believe, that had he gained the battle of Kollin nothing could have stopped his progress till he came to Vienna.

For small states, especially when surrounded by powerful enemies, it will be necessary, besides the frontiers, to fortify the capital, or some town near the centre of the dominions; this,

in time of peace, will serve as a magazine for provisions and ammunition, whence other fortresses, as well as the neighbouring towns, may be occasionally supplied; and, in time of war, it will afford a retreat for the people of the country with their most valuable effects. The preservation of Piedmont, in the year 1706, was owing to a precaution of this kind; for if Turin, the capital, had not been fortified, the whole province must inevitably have fallen a prey to the French: and to closing the avenues of Amsterdam, by which it was enabled to withstand the forces of Louis XIV. in 1672, may be ascribed also the preservation of the states of Holland, who, sensible of the great advantages derived even from such partial and temporary fortifications, have since ordered that city to be encompassed with strong and durable works.

The more immediate views of states in the erection of fortresses have uniformly been to obtain security against surprises; and to be able, with a few troops within, to withstand the assaults of a greater number without. Such were the special objects of the Greeks in fortifying Thermopylæ, the narrow straits between the mountains of Thessaly and Phocya: of Adrubal, in fortifying New Carthage; and of Demosthenes, in fortifying Pilos.

To answer these important purposes, we are principally to consider the situation, extent, form or figure, most proper for fortresses, and the strength and disposition of the various works.

From the most authentic accounts of the first contending states, it appears, that their fortifications were only a plain wall built in a straight direction, with a ditch before it. This was sufficient to withstand violence and prevent surprises, for no other means were made use of at that time but investing the place and reducing it by famine; of which, among other instances, history has mentioned that of Sardanapulus the last king of Assyria, who, in Nineveh, sustained the siege of Cyaxares, king of the Medes, seven years.

In length of time, when art had been employed in the construction and improvement of various destructive weapons, and war was become a kind of science, the walls were built with a continued projection at top, and with loop holes at certain distances, to enable the besiegers to repel the assailants with their arrows; but finding that the enemy, when once got close to the wall, could from no part be discovered or repulsed, square towers were added at equal distances, determined by the reach of the arrow, from the sides of which it was expected that every part of the wall would be easily defended.

This improvement, however, did not answer the purpose; for there still remained that face of the tower fronting the field, which could not be seen, and, consequently, could not be defended.

To remedy this evil some introduced different angular towers, and some the round tower: the latter, however, soon

obtained the general preference, because the circular form of all others had the greatest strength, and was most capable of resisting the battering engines: the round tower, therefore, in which every part could be seen and defended, except a space so small as scarcely to conceal a single man, continued long in use; and probably would have remained to this day, but for the invention of gun-powder. The rapid force of this new and simple composition, exploding balls of iron from cannons and mortars, soon convinced the world that the walls and towers hitherto constructed were but a weak defence.

• In consequence of the knowledge of this invention, which is ascribed to Bartholde Schwartz, who lived in the beginning of the fourteenth century, ramparts were added to the walls; and, instead of round towers, the square towers were renewed, and called bastions; with this difference, that, instead of presenting a face to the field they presented an angle, and the angle towards the town was cut off for an entrance. Half-moons, counter-guards, and other outworks, were gradually introduced, to render the power of the defence in some measure equivalent to the force of the attack, which was now become considerably superior.

• Whilst this improved art of fortification was in its infancy, the states of Italy, by their intestine wars, acquired great experience in it. They are supposed to be the first who digested it into a system, Ramilly and Cataneo, the earliest writers on the subject, being natives of that country. The Germans also soon excelled in this art, and the work of Speckle, at the end of the sixteenth century, is still read with approbation. The war between the Spaniards and the Dutch, which lasted eighty years, considerably aided its progress; and the ten years siege of Candia by the Turks, furnished the means of making new discoveries.

• But to that perfection to which the art of fortification is now advanced, none have contributed so amply as Pagan, Coehorn, and Vauban, who appeared in the seventeenth century, and whose important discoveries have considerably lessened the value of the labours of their predecessors.

• Mr. Coehorn, whose treatise was written in early life, and with those high pretensions to great improvements which young minds are apt to assume, did not, however, so much adhere to his own systems as to the systems of Vauban; of which the works of Bergen-op-zoom, are an incontestible proof.

• But notwithstanding all the improvements that have been made in fortification, since the invention of gun-powder, the power of defence is still inferior to the force of attack. Engineers have been continually trying to render them at least equal, but they have hitherto tried in vain; and the superiority of the besiegers fire, supported by a greater number of men, will at length generally oblige the besieged to submit.

• The greatest improvement that has been made in the art of attack, was first exhibited in 1688, when Mr. Vauban introduced

deceit the ricochet firing at the siege of Philipsburg: the common opinion, however, is, that he did not exhibit this singular invention till the siege of Ath, in 1697.

'The design of this volume is, to communicate to young students precise and adequate ideas of the important art of fortification; to explain the principles of the form and position of the different works, and exemplify the rules by which they are to be constructed and applied; and, so far as respects the author himself, to give the military world a new proof of his insuppressible zeal for the improvement and honour of the service. To the candid reception of the military world, his labours, and the motives of them, are always not less respectfully than freely offered.'

*Sermons. Vol. II. By Hugh Blair, D. D. 8vo. 5s. in boards. Cadell.*

**E**VERY preacher, who offers his discourses to the literati, should favour them with something that is worth their notice. Plain, pious, and practical sermons; full of trite observations, and arguments that only tend to prove incontrovertible propositions, are of no use. We have a sufficient number of such productions already. An author who wishes to distinguish himself from the crowd, should not only write with a majestic simplicity, but propose some great and interesting object in all his enquiries. He should rectify the prejudices of his readers, correct their mistaken notions, convince their understandings, elevate their ideas, enlarge their views, and throw a new light on some passage of scripture, some important doctrine of religion, or useful point of morality.

Dr. Blair is a writer of great abilities. He possesses a strong and lively imagination; displays a delicacy of sentiment; and expresses himself with a peculiar force and elegance of style. But these are his chief excellences. His arguments are obvious and familiar; and his notions on certain speculative doctrines of religion a little exceptionable: they seem indeed to be founded on the Calvinist system, or the Assembly's Catechism. Thus he says:

'The dispensation of mercy in Jesus Christ admits of the vicarious atonement and righteousness of a redeemer.'

'All religions proceed upon the belief, that, in order to the pardon of the sinner, atonement must be made to the justice of heaven. Hence the endless variety of sacrifices, victims, and expiations, which have filled the earth. The great sacrifice, which our Redeemer offered for guilt, coincides with these natural sentiments of mankind, in giving ease to the heart. It shews us the forfeit of guilt paid by a divine personage in our behalf, &c.'

'We know, that, in consequence of the fall, death was inflicted as a *punishment* upon the *human race*.'

This is not true, if extended to the *posterity* of Adam. For they were innocent of his transgression, and might indeed be *sufferers*, but could not be justly *punished*. The notion of punishment is built upon the exploded doctrine of imputed guilt.

The subjects, on which the author discourses in this volume, are, The Importance of Order in Conduct, the Government of the Heart, the Unchangeableness of the Divine Nature, the Compassion of Christ, the Love of Praise, the proper Estimate of Human Life, Death, the Happiness of a Future State, Candor, the Character of Joseph, the Character of Hazeel, the Benefits to be derived from the House of Mourning, the divine Government of the Passions of Men, and the Importance of religious Knowledge to Mankind.

The following observations on the Love of Praise are unquestionably just, and expressed with great energy of language.

'The praise of men is not an object of any such value in itself as to be entitled to become the leading principle of conduct. We degrade our character when we allow it more than subordinate regard. Like other worldly goods, it is apt to dazzle us with a false lustre; but if we would ascertain its true worth, let us reflect both on whom it is bestowed, and from whom it proceeds. Were the applause of the world always the reward of merit; were it appropriated to such alone as by real abilities, or by worthy actions, are entitled to rise above the crowd, we might justly be flattered by possessing a rare and valuable distinction. But how far is this from being the case in fact? How often have the despicable and the vile, by dexterously catching the favour of the multitude, soared upon the wings of popular applause, while the virtuous and the deserving have been either buried in obscurity, or obliged to encounter the attacks of unjust reproach? The laurels which human praise confers are withered and blasted by the unworthiness of those who wear them. Let the man who is vain of public favour be humbled by the reflection, that, in the midst of his success, he is mingled with a crowd of impostors and deceivers, of hypocrites and enthusiasts, of ignorant pretenders and superficial reasoners, who, by various arts, have attained as high a rank as himself in temporary fame.

'We may easily be satisfied that applause will be often shared by the undeserving, if we allow ourselves to consider from whom it proceeds. When it is the approbation of the wise only and the good which is pursued, the love of praise may then be accounted to contain itself within just bounds, and to run in its proper channel. But the testimony of the discerning few, modest



deft and unassuming as they commonly are, forms but a small part of the public voice. It feldom amounts to more than a whisper, which amidft the general clamour is drowned. When the love of praife has taken poffeffion of the mind, it confines not itfelf to an object fo limited. It grows into an appetite for indifcriminate praife. And who are they that confer this praife? A mixed multitude of men, who in their whole conduct are guided by humour and caprice, far more than by reafon; who admire falfe appearances, and purfue falfe goods; who inquire fuperficially, and judge rafhly; whofe sentiments are for the moft part erroneous, always changeable, and often inconfiftent. Nor let any one imagine, that by looking above the crowd, and courting the praife of the fashionable and the great, he makes fure of true honour. There are a great vulgar, as well as a fmall. Rank often makes no difference in the underftandings of men, or in their judicious diftribution of praife. Luxury, pride, and vanity, have frequently as much influence in corrupting the sentiments of the great, as ignorance, bigotry, and prejudice, have in mifleading the opinions of the crowd.—And is it to fuch judges as thefe that you fubmit the fupreme direction of your conduct? Do you ftoop to court their favour as your chief diftinction, when an object of fo much jufter and higher ambition is prefented to you in *the praife of God*? God is the only unerring judge of what is excellent. His approbation alone is the fubftance, all other praife is but the fhadow, of honour. The character which you bear in his fight is your only real one. How contemptible does it render you to be indifferent with refpect to this, and to be folicitous about a name alone, a fictitious, imaginary character, which has no exiftence except in the opinions of a few weak and credulous men around you? They fee no farther than the outfide of things. They can judge of you by actions only; and not by the comprehensive view of all your actions, but by fuch merely as you have had opportunity of bringing forth to public notice. But the Sovereign of the world beholds you in every light in which you can be placed. The filent virtues of a generous purpofe, and a pious heart, attract his notice equally with the moft fplendid deeds. From him you may reap the praife of good actions which you had no opportunity of performing. For he fees them in their principle; he judges of you by your intentions; he knows what you would have done. You may be in his eyes a hero or a martyr, without undergoing the labours of the one, or the fufferings of the other. His infpection, therefore, opens a much wider field for praife than what the world can afford you; and for praife, too, certainly far more illuftrious in the eye of reafon. Every real artift ftudies to approve himfelf to fuch as are knowing in his art. To their judgment he appeals: On their approbation he refts his character, and not on the praife of the unskilled and rude. In the higheft art of all, that of life and conduct, fhall the opinions of ignorant men come into the moft diftant competi-

tion with his approbation who is the searcher of all hearts, and the standard of all perfection? — The testimony of his praise is not indeed, as yet, openly bestowed. But though the voice of the Almighty found not in your ears, yet by conscience, his sacred vicegerent, it is capable of being conveyed to your heart. The softest whisper of divine approbation is sweeter to the soul of a virtuous man, than the loudest shouts of that tumultuary applause which proceeds from the world.'

The twelfth sermon, on the character of Hazael, taken from a remarkable passage in 2 Kings viii. 12, 13. contains many excellent observations. The circumstances, alluded to in the text, are thus related by Dr. Blair.

'In the days of Joram king of Israel flourished the prophet Elisha. His character was so eminent, and his fame so widely spread, that Benhadad the king of Syria, though an idolater, sent to consult him concerning the issue of a distemper which threatened his life. The messenger employed on this occasion was Hazael, who appears to have been one of the princes, or chief men, of the Syrian court. Charged with rich gifts from the king, he presents himself before the prophet; and accosts him in terms of the highest respect. During the conference which they held together, Elisha fixed his eye stedfastly on the countenance of Hazael; and discerning, by a prophetic spirit, his future tyranny and cruelty, he could not contain himself from bursting into a flood of tears. When Hazael, in surprize, inquired into the cause of this sudden emotion, the prophet plainly informs him of the crimes and barbarities which he foresaw that hereafter he should commit. The soul of Hazael abhorred, at this time, the thoughts of cruelty. Uncorrupted, as yet, by ambition or greatness, his indignation arose at being thought capable of such savage actions as the prophet had mentioned; and, with much warmth, he replies, "But what? is thy servant a dog, that he should do this great thing?" Elisha makes no return but to point out a remarkable change which was to take place in his condition; "The Lord hath shewed me that thou shalt be king over Syria." In course of time, all that had been predicated came to pass. Hazael ascended the throne; and ambition took possession of his heart. "He smote the children of Israel in all their coasts. He oppressed them during all the days of king Jehoahaz;" and, from what is left on record of his actions, plainly appears to have proved what the prophet foresaw him to be, a man of violence, cruelty, and blood.

'In this passage of history, an object is presented which deserves our serious attention. We behold a man who, in one state of life, could not look upon certain crimes without surprize and horror; who knew so little of himself as to believe it impossible for him ever to be concerned in committing them; that same man, by a change of condition, transformed in all his sentiments, and as he rose in greatness, rising also in guilt; till at last he completed that whole character of iniquity which he once detested.'

From

From this extraordinary change in the sentiments of Hazael, the author takes occasion to suggest these, and other instructive reflections.

' I. Sentiments of abhorrence at guilt are natural to the human mind. Hazael's reply to the prophet shews how strongly he felt them. "Is thy servant a dog, that he should do this great thing?" Is he, or can he ever be, so base and wretched as to perpetrate crimes, which would render him unworthy of bearing the name of a man? This is the voice of human nature, while it is not as yet hardened in iniquity."——

' II. Such is man's ignorance of his own character, such the frailty of his nature, that he may one day become infamous for those very crimes which at present he holds in detestation. This observation is too well verified by the history of Hazael; and a thousand other instances might be brought to confirm it. Though there is nothing which every person ought to know so thoroughly as his own heart, yet from the conduct of men it appears, that there is nothing with which they are less acquainted. Always more prone to flatter themselves than desirous to discover the truth, they trust to their being possessed of every virtue which has not been put to the trial; and reckon themselves secure against every vice to which they have not hitherto been tempted. As long as their duty hangs in speculation, it appears so plain, and so eligible, that they cannot doubt of performing it. The suspicion never enters their mind, that in the hour of speculation, and in the hour of practice, their sentiments may differ widely. Their present disposition they easily persuade themselves will ever continue the same; and yet that disposition is changing with circumstances every moment.

' The man who glows with the warm feelings of devotion, imagines it impossible for him to lose that sense of the divine goodness which at present melts his heart. He whom his friend has lately saved from ruin, is confident that, if some trying emergency shall put his gratitude to proof, he will rather die than abandon his benefactor. He who lives happy and contented in frugal industry, wonders how any man can give himself up to dissolute pleasure. Were any of those persons informed by a superior spirit, that the time was shortly to come when the one should prove an example of scandalous impiety, the other of treachery to his friend, and the third of all that extravagant luxury which disgraces a growing fortune; each of them would testify as much surprize and abhorrence as Hazael did, upon hearing the predictions of the prophet. Sincere they might very possibly be in their expressions of indignation; for hypocrisy is not always to be charged on men whose conduct is inconsistent. Hazael was in earnest, when he repented with such ardour the imputation of cruelty. The apostle Peter was sincere, when he made the zealous profession, that though he should go to prison and to death with his master, he would never deny him.

him. They were sincere : that is, they spoke from the fulness of their hearts, and from the warmth of the present moment ; but they did not know themselves, as the events which followed plainly shewed. So false to its principles, too frequently, is the heart of man ; so weak is the foundation of human virtue ; so much reason there is for what the gospel perpetually inculcates concerning the necessity of distrusting ourselves, and depending on divine aid. Mortifying, I confess, is this view of human nature ; yet proper to be attended to by all, in order to escape the most fatal dangers. For, merely through unguarded conduct, and from the want of this prudent suspicion of their own weakness, how many, after the most promising beginnings, have gradually apostatized from every principle of virtue ; until, at last, it has become as difficult for one to believe that they ever had any love of goodness, as it would have been once to have persuaded themselves that they were to advance to such a height in wickedness ?

‘ III. The power which corruption acquires to pervert the original principles of men, is frequently owing to a change of their circumstances and condition in the world. How different was Hazael the messenger of Benhadad, from Hazael the king ; he who started at the mention of cruelty, from him who waded in blood ! Of this sad and surprizing revolution, the prophet emphatically assigns the cause in these few words, “ The Lord hath shewed me that thou shalt be king over Syria.” That crown, that fatal crown, which is to be set upon thy head, shall shed a malignant influence over thy nature ; and shall produce that change in thy character which now thou canst not believe. — Whose experience of the world is so narrow, as not to furnish him with instances similar to this, in much humbler conditions of life ? So great is the influence of a new situation of external fortune ; such a different turn it gives to our temper and affections, to our views and desires, that no man can foretell what his character would prove, should Providence either raise or depress his circumstances in a remarkable degree, or throw him into some sphere of action widely different from that to which he has been accustomed in former life.

‘ The seeds of various qualities, good and bad, lie in all our hearts. But until proper occasions ripen, and bring them forward, they lie there inactive and dead. They are covered up and concealed within the recesses of our nature : or, if they spring up at all, it is under such an appearance as is frequently mistaken, even by ourselves. Pride, for instance, in certain situations, has no opportunity of displaying itself, but as magnanimity, or sense of honour. Avarice appears as necessary and laudable economy. What in one station of life would discover itself to be cowardice and baseness of mind, passes in another for prudent circumspection. What in the fulness of power would prove to be cruelty and oppression, is reputed, in a subordinate rank, no more than the exercise of proper discipline.

For a while, the man is known neither by the world, nor by himself, to be what he truly is. But bring him into a new situation of life, which accords with his predominant disposition; which strikes on certain latent qualities of his soul, and awakens them into action; and, as the leaves of a flower gradually unfold to the sun, so shall all his true character open full to view.

Before we finish this article, we shall take the liberty to point out some small inaccuracies, which have occurred to us in the perusal of these discourses.

All his works are *full of order*, p. 3.—Different obligations distract you; and this distraction is sometimes the cause, sometimes the *pretence*, of equally neglecting *them all*, or, at least, of sacrificing the greater to the *lesser*, p. 7.—free of blame, p. 42.—Goodness and justice in God shine with that uniform brightness, which we can liken to nothing so much as to the *untroubled*, eternal *lustre* of the highest heavens, p. 90.—It is that species of goodness, with which, *of all others*, we are best acquainted, p. 129.—That which pleases *most* universally is religion, p. 168.—When external circumstances *show fairest* to the world, p. 185.—Place him in a region, where he *was* surrounded with every pleasure, p. 250.—They have *sat down* [sitten] on the seat of the conqueror, p. 266.—He is not *given* to think evil, p. 287.—*Given* to think the worst, p. 295.—A person of a base mind is *incredulous of* every excellency, which to him is totally unknown, p. 294.—Away with this man to *the* death, p. 299.—He *knows not* to whom to *open* himself, p. 301.—Light, which once shone *clear and strong* [clearly and strongly] within us, p. 340.—He who *lives* [is] *bappy*, and contented in frugal industry, p. 342.—You would not willingly place one, for whose welfare you *was* interested, in a situation, for which you *were* convinced, *that* his abilities *were* unequal, p. 360.—It *were* [would be] equally unnatural, if no admission *was* [were] given to grave reflection, p. 372.—Which none of them understood, *nor* [or] meant to promote, p. 418.—The more *that* its sphere [that of the understanding] is enlarged, the greater number of objects that are submitted to its view, especially when these objects are of intrinsic excellence, the more must those rational powers which are the glory of man, be in their course of attaining their proper strength and maturity, p. 434. This is obscure, and inaccurately expressed.—Where religious principles are far from *operating* their full effect, p. 441. *Operating* is a neuter verb, and improperly used in this place.

In the following sentences there is an empty pomp of words, or an unpleasing affectation: At any rate is it desirable to draw  
life

life out to the *left dregs*, and to wait till old age *pour upon you* its whole store of diseases and sorrows, p. 223.—When the moment arrives, that the silver cord must be *loosed*, and the golden bowl be *broken*, their Almighty Protector *carries off* the immortal spirit unhurt by the *fall* of its *earthly tabernacle*, p. 240.—Some distress, either felt or feared, gnaws, *like a worm*, the root of his *felicity*, p. 185.—To human lips it is not given to taste the cup of pure joy, *ibid.*—If it should be said that these remarks are verbal criticisms of no importance, we can only reply, in the words of Quinctilian, when, speaking of grammar, he says: Quo minus sunt ferendi, qui hanc artem ut tenum ac jejunam cavillantur; quæ nisi oratori futuro fundamenta fideliter jecerit, quicquid superstruxeris corruet. Lib. i. cap. 4.

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*Remarks on the Ophthalmia, Pterophthalmia, and Purulent Eye. With Methods of Cure, &c. 8vo. By James Ware, Surgeon. 2s. 6d. Dilly.*

**P**REVIOUS to an account of the diseases which form the subject of this treatise, the author gives a brief description of the eye, and its appendages, as introductory to the observations which follow.

Mr. Ware, speaking of the bad effects of light in an ophthalmia, takes notice, that for greater security in this respect, as well as to prevent the motion of the eye, some surgeons have practised the method of binding compresses, or plasters, tight over the eyes; an expedient which, by confining the tears, augments the irritation, and likewise, by the concomitant pressure, increases the obstruction in the minute vessels. Instead of this method, therefore, he very properly recommends the use of a pasteboard hood, or bonnet, to be worn at a greater or less distance from the eyes, as the particular case may require; and, if this be insufficient to prevent their being hurt by the light, the patient must submit to the confinement of a room, where little or none enters.

After some remarks on the nature and causes of the ophthalmia, the author proceeds to the consideration of the method of cure; enquiring first, in what manner, and from what part, the necessary evacuation of blood may be most advantageously performed. He observes that opening the temporal artery has generally been reckoned one of the most effectual, as well as expeditious methods of cure, on account of the nearness of its situation to the seat of the disease. This method, however, is liable to two objections. The first is, that it frequently will not yield a quantity of blood sufficient to an-

answer the intended purpose; and the second, that troublesome, and even dangerous hæmorrhages have sometimes burst from the orifice, at the distance of many hours from the operation. Mr. Ware informs us, that on those accounts, he has generally preferred the application of leeches to the temples. But what is particularly worthy of notice, he farther acquaints us, that in some obstinate cases, after leeches had been applied, and various other means used, without any success, he has seen remarkable good effects produced by a complete transverse division of this artery.

In respect of leeches, Mr. Ware observes, that when they have been placed on or very near the eyelids, they have sometimes occasioned those parts to swell to a very large size, and have increased, for a time, the irritation of the eye. He thinks that the number of leeches applied should seldom, if ever, be less than three; and, in order to prevent the mischief above-mentioned, it will be proper to confine their application as near to each other as possible, in the hollow of the temple, about an inch and a half distant from the outer angle of the orbit.

When the leeches have fallen off, and the consequent hæmorrhage has ceased, the author advises the application of a blister, of the size of half a crown, to the temples, directly over the orifices made by the leeches; observing that the quicker in succession they have followed each other, the more efficacious both have proved.

The topical application recommended by Mr. Ware in the ophthalmia, is laudanum, concerning which, as being an uncommon method of cure, we shall present our readers with his remarks.

‘ Besides the method of cure already pointed out, some local applications are necessary: and that, which I would particularly recommend for this purpose, is the thebaic tincture of the London Dispensatory; a medicine composed of opium and warm aromatics, dissolved in mountain wine. The power of opium, when inwardly taken, to ease pain and induce sleep, has been long known: but its external use is absolutely forbidden by some very respectable persons of the medical profession. Galen relates, that a gladiator was killed by a plaster of opium applied to the head: and other authors have said, that blindness and deafness were caused by its application to the eyes and ears. Experience, however, makes directly against these assertions; and proves, beyond contradiction, the great efficacy of its outward use in a variety of cases. In the ophthalmia, particularly, I have found the thebaic tincture, wherein opium is the principal ingredient, to be eminently serviceable; and the mode, in which I have applied it, has been, to drop two or three drops of it

it into the eye, once or twice a day, according as the symptoms were more or less violent. When first applied, it causes a sharp pain, and a copious flow of tears, which continue a few minutes, and gradually abate; after which, a great and remarkable degree of ease generally succeeds.

' The inflammation is often visibly abated by one application of this tincture only; and many bad cases have been completely cured by it in less than a fortnight, after every other kind of remedy had been used for weeks, and sometimes months, without any success. But this speedy good effect is not to be expected in all cases indiscriminately. In some, the amendment is more slow and gradual, requiring the tincture to be made use of for a much longer time; and a few instances have occurred, in which no relief at all was obtained from its first application. In cases of the latter kind, in which the complaint is generally recent, the eyes appear shining and glossy, and feel exquisite pain from the rays of light. However, notwithstanding these symptoms, the application is sometimes found to succeed; and whether it will or not, can only be determined by making the trial; which is attended with no other inconvenience than the momentary pain it gives; and when it is found to produce no good effect, the use of it must be suspended, until evacuations, and other proper means, have diminished the excessive irritation; after which, it may again be applied, and bids equally fair for success, as in those instances in which it never disagreed.

' Though I have said, that opium is the basis of the thebaic tincture, it is necessary to observe, that the benefit arising from its application to the eyes must depend on something more than the existence of this medicine in its composition; since I have several times applied a strong solution of opium in water without any success: the pain, indeed, was sometimes lessened for a while, but the inflammation always remained in its full force, as if nothing had been done. A fomentation made with poppy-heads, and applied warm, has been found comfortable to the diseased part; and, in slight attacks of this disorder, has been sufficient to remove it: but in more obstinate cases, it has repeatedly been found ineffectual, until the use of the tincture was joined with it.

' That I might judge still more certainly, what it was in the thebaic tincture, which chiefly caused its utility; I have also once or twice applied to the eye the other principal ingredient in its composition, which is mountain wine; but I found that it gave the patient considerably more pain, and for a much longer time than the tincture; and was followed with no kind of benefit.

' Having, therefore, satisfied myself, that neither of the ingredients in the tincture was able, in a separate state, to produce the benefit, which they uniformly did in combination with each other, I have for a long time past confined myself to the use of the tincture alone; and, from repeated experience, I am  
able



able to recommend it, with the helps and cautions above given, as a most effectual application in every species and stage of the disorder, from the most mild and recent, to the most obdurate and inveterate.

To the remarks on the ophthalmy, the author has subjoined the history of eleven cases, elucidating and confirming the method of cure, in a variety of circumstances.

When that part of the tunica conjunctiva which covers the globe of the eye, is inflamed to any considerable degree, that which covers the eyelids is liable to be affected in the same manner; but this being only a symptom, or immediate effect of the ophthalmy, disappears for the most part as soon as the latter ceases. In some instances, however, the inflammation of the lids is attended with an ulceration of their edges, upon which a glutinous matter lodging incrusts and becomes hard; and when they have been long in contact, as during sleep, they adhere so closely to each other, as not to be separated without pain. This disorder Mr. Ware distinguishes by the name of pforophthalmy, as being more expressive of its nature than any other appellation he could find.

For the cure of this disorder, M. St. Yves has advised the application of the lapis infernalis; but our author justly observes, that the use of such a remedy is greatly to be dreaded in a part so tender as the eye, and therefore, says he,

‘ I would recommend the use of the unguentum citrinum of the Edinburgh Dispensatory, the composition of which is as follows:

℞ Hydrargyri unciam unam,  
Spiritus nitri uncias duas.

Digere super arenam, ut fiat solutio, quæ calidissima adhuc misceatur cum axungia porcina liquefacta et in coagulum denovo tendentis librâ unâ, strenue agitando in mortario marmoreo ut fiat unguentum.

If it is well made, it forms a hard salve, of a full yellow colour; but if the proportions are not exact, or the lard is added either too hot, or too cold, it will want both its proper colour and consistence; and its success will be much less certain than it otherwise would be.

‘ The manner in which it is to be used, is as follows: fill a small box with it; let it be warmed before a candle, till the top of it is melted into an oil: this oil is to be taken off upon the end of the fore-finger, and carefully rubbed into the edges of the affected eyelids. The use of it once in twenty-four hours, will be sufficient; and that should be, when the patient goes to bed. Immediately after the application, a soft plaster, spread with the ceratum album, is to be bound loosely over the eyelids, which will preserve them moist and supple in the night, and contribute to prevent their adhesions to each other. Notwithstanding this,

some

some difficulties will always attend the opening them in the morning: for the further relief of which, it will be found of great use to cleanse them with milk and fresh butter, well mixed together, and warmed; which will gradually soften and remove the incruusted matter, and, in a short time, enable the patient to separate them without any pain.

\* In some instances, where the eye has been very irritable, I have been obliged to apply the ointment by means of a small brush made with camels hair; but if the finger can be used (and in most cases it may,) it certainly is better than any instrument, as the ointment may, by its assistance, be more thoroughly applied to the diseased part.

\* The psorophthalmia is often accompanied with a greater or less degree of inflammation on the globe of the eye: the thebaic tincture will therefore be of the same use, as in the cases of the ophthalmia already given.

Ten cases are afterwards related, illustrating the progress of this disorder, and the method of its cure.

The author next treats of the purulent eyes of new-born children, by which we are not to understand a discharge of really purulent matter, but only of mucus, transuded through the minute pores of the tunica conjunctiva. Our author observes, that for this disorder, emollient cataplasms have been commonly recommended, but with great impropriety. For the disease consisting in a relaxation of the parts, such applications cannot fail of proving extremely prejudicial.

\* Those cases, particularly, in which the inner parts of the eyelids are turned outwards, appear to be caused by the extreme relaxation, and swelling of the tunica conjunctiva. This membrane being forced outward by the child's crying, or by any other means, is prevented from returning to its natural situation, by the cartilage called tarsus; which, preserving its natural strength and elasticity, acts as a tight band to keep it out. Now, to add to this swelling and relaxation of the conjunctiva, by emollient applications in any form, must, surely, be opposite to every reasonable attempt that can be made for the cure.

\* Instead of cataplasms of this nature, whenever such kinds of applications are thought necessary, they, also, as well as the lotion, should have a tonic, or mild astringent property; and I would particularly recommend one, that is made of the curds of milk, turned with alum, and an equal part of unguentum sambuci, or axungia porcini. I have found this to be highly useful. It should be applied cold, and frequently repeated, without intermitting the use of the injection.

\* It sometimes happens, that the matter formed between the lids is of a glutinous and adhesive nature, causing the eye-lashes to stick to each other, after they have been closed for any length

length of time. In this case, after the cataplasm above mentioned is removed, and before the lotion is injected, it will be proper to wash off the adhesive matter, with a little fresh butter dissolved in warm milk, or with some other soft oleaginous liquor.

‘The eversion of the lids has so disagreeable an appearance, that it greatly alarms those who are unacquainted with the disorder; particularly, as is sometimes the case, when it is continual. If it takes place only when the child cries, and disappears as soon as the crying ceases, nothing more need be done than to use the applications above recommended; and as the swelling of the conjunctiva abates, this symptom will likewise go off; but, if the eversion is constant, it will be necessary to repeat the injection oftener than in other cases, and to employ a person, immediately after the use of it, to return the lids, and to keep a compress, dipt in the diluted aqua camphorata, constantly upon them, with his finger; in order that the habit may be removed, and the lids may recover their proper tone and strength.

‘Where the swelling and inflammation have been considerable, I have sometimes found it necessary to take blood from the temples. In those very young subjects, who are most commonly affected by this disorder, one leech applied to each temple seems fully sufficient to answer the purpose; immediately after the use of which, I have, in general, directed a small blister to be applied on the same part.

‘Internals of the absorbent and laxative kind should also be given, to keep the body cool and open; such as rhubarb, magnesia, manna, &c. and, if there is reason to suppose any particular humour in the habit, gentle alteratives should be added; such as the æthiops mineralis, or small doses of mercurius dulcis.

‘In cases where the inside of the eyelids has been much inflamed, I have occasionally applied, with good effect, the thebaic tincture, as recommended in the chapter on the Ophthalmia.’

In support of the practice recommended in this disorder, the author has adduced four cases; to which is subjoined the history of a gutta serena cured by electricity.

The practice recommended in this treatise is every where obviously judicious; and the remarks derive additional support from the authority of Mr. Wathen, to whom the author candidly ascribes the merit of each improvement in the cure of the ophthalmia.

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*Midnight the Signal; in Sixteen Letters to a Lady of Quality.*  
2 Vols. Small 8vo. 5s. sewed. Doddsley.

‘FRONTI nulla fides’ it has been said, is a true adage, founded on a thorough acquaintance with the world. We are also told that to form an opinion of a book, we must

must not judge by the title-page. And yet the *knowing-ones*, in these different title-pages, pretend that something characteristic is always to be discovered in both. Whether this be universally true we shall not now examine; but Midnight the Signal is certainly expressive of the character of the present performance. The solemnity, the quaintness, the oddity of the title, runs through the whole work.

It consists of Sixteen Letters from a Guardian to his Ward, on the Danger of Late Hours in Pursuit of Amusement, on Indiscretion and Prejudice, the Reigning Fashions, Wedlock, Resignation to Providence, &c. The three last Letters contain a dialogue with a school-mistress on female education. The topic most insisted on is *late hours*, which lead, the author tells us, like sabbath-breaking amongst the lower ranks of life, to dissipation, the destruction of health, and every species of immorality.

We hope, with the editor, that these Letters may 'in some degree be productive of good to the community at large.' but we have our fears that those who want reformation the most will profit the least by them. Had the author written with more gaiety and ease, his success would have been less uncertain. This he has *sometimes* attempted, but has failed in the attempt. '*Ridentem dicere verum*' does not seem his most shining quality. The votaries of fashion and of pleasure will not relish the solemnity of his address, in treating what they look upon at worst as only *foibles*, with all the pathos of the pulpit. After reading the following passage, and others of a like kind, we are afraid they will be apt to consider his whimsical title as a trap to *draw them in* to the perusal of a collection of sermons.

'Let lady ——— keep good hours, and her warfare will be less arduous. She will submit to nature; and, going in due time to rest, rise to perform the great business of life; and, according to the wise man, be entitled to 'a seat with princes.' She will be the more honoured by every class among the sober part of mankind. Sobriety will turn her thoughts to the concerns of her soul, the wonders of redemption by the Son of God; and how it may fare with those who do not 'redeem the time,' though they know 'the days are evil.'

'I consider her as a Christian. Under that glorious appellation, what might not a lady of her strength of mind, and personal charms, accomplish? Common sense now calls on her, with an angel's voice, and, whether she chuses or not, she must answer.

'I plead her cause with pleasure: I know she has good sense: she must learn to apply it. Let her attend to her own clear and indubitable interest, and her mind will receive new strength.

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She will have fewer painful thoughts to contend with ; and more energy of soul to baffle the prince of darkness ! The scene of her joys will be less subject to change. According to the measure of her hopes, arising from a consistent conduct, the grass will appear to her in fuller verdure ; the trees will afford a more grateful shade ; the melody of birds will be sweeter to her ears ; and the bubbling stream refresh her senses so much the more. The bleating of sheep, and the *mewing* of the herds, will speak the voice of nature, and she will bow herself to the earth in joyful adoration !—Let her think, and she will feel the Deity pervading all ! The still voice of reason will whisper to her soul, as the soft gentle breezes fan her body : and faith will carry her on seraph wings to the mansions of eternal joy !

‘ In a word, let her seek, and she will find ! There can be no cruel necessity for amusements, out of season, to bewilder her thoughts by day, or disturb her dreams by night. True joy is calm as the night, bright as the day. Let her seek it, I say, and from the dawning of the day, till the midnight darkness, her heart will incline to good. She will offer the sacrifice of prayer with a more willing and delighted mind, than that with which she now dresses, for a midnight entertainment.

‘ To a mind tinctured with true piety the God of nature appears in all his works ! Every religious sentiment brought into habit, and assimilated with the soul, is an emanation of the Deity ! Let her labour for such a habit, and her reason will acquire new strength, her faith will elevate her heart, and her spirit feel, that God is all in all !’

On the other hand, should a passage where the author *undigns* to enliven his subject present itself, is there not some danger of their smiling at (what they would call) the awkward attempt ? For such persons will consider as detestable in a *book-maker*, and in one too who writes unpalatable truths, what from a well-dressed man of the world might perhaps be received with applause. The reader will judge from the following extracts whether it is not probable that this may happen.

‘ The common people, however, hardly know what the ton means ; but in a few years they will talk of the *ton*, in allusion to those jolly fellows who drink porter : and as the ton intoxicates with folly, and the tun with its contents, the corruption and allusion may harmonize with great exactness.’

‘ In short, if you preserve great equality of mind ; and consistency of conduct, the very characteristical marks of wisdom, you will be thought very odd. I need not add, that your ladyship knows, nothing can be even, where reason is not the rule to measure by.’

The author’s proverbs also will be a subject of raillery, as the *infallible* fountain \* of taste and manners has pronounced

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\* Lord Chesterfield.

them undoubted marks of vulgarity. After reading the following, 'If you follow truth too close it will kick your teeth out'—'Confine your tongue that it may not confine you'—'Fools and their money are soon parted'—'Pride goes before a fall,'—will they not ask with a sneer, 'Is Sancho risen from the dead?'

Thus will a certain want of taste and manner in the treatment of his subject, lead those most concerned rather to smile at the peculiarity of detached passages, than to profit by the good advice which runs through the whole. His introducing the great apostle as a critic on female dress, will likewise contribute to the entertainment of those who are more ready to laugh than to be instructed.

'The great apostle, who thought the female vanity of his time an object of reprehension, on the principles of humility, which distinguishes christianity, were he to return to earth, would he not think the female dress should be changed, that with it, a change of manners might take place?'

Inaccuracies, and singularity of expression, are frequent. As a sample take the following. Vol. i. p. 35, 'Mewing (not of *cats*, but) of the *berds*.' Ib. p. 51, 'potherring the artist.' Ib. p. 140, 'potherr the will,' &c.

The reader will be able to form some judgment of the author's style by his supposed harangue of Time in a ball-room. He thus introduces it, writing to his ward :

'When you return again to London, whether you find me among the living or the dead, think of my friendly lessons, and I hope you will pay honour to my good friend and senior, old Time, who glides along undiscovered in his haste, hardly allowing us to recollect him; but he often speaks to us. When the clock strikes Twelve, the midnight hour, figure to your mind's eye that venerable personage, with his wings and his scythe, visiting the ball-room. Hear him command the music to cease, and the company to retire! Will they disobey his mandate? Will they say, "Art thou come to torment us before our time? We will not regard thee: thou wert made for us, not we for thee!"'

'The unwise may say this; and let them hear the answer; "I am come to prevent your being tormented, now, or at any other time. You know not what you do! With regard to you, I am coeval with eternity! On me your eternity depends! When the Almighty gave the word, and chaos fled, then was I born; and from that moment have I faithfully served great nature's high behest! All your false arts of living are but beggars brats, crying with hunger, when by the use of their native powers, they might have comfortable bread—If I were made for your use alone, it could be only for a few years; and my character

rafter is too sacred to bear indignities ! Know you not, that you are but grass, and your beauty as the flower of the field ! If you persist in abusing me, I shall mow you down as stubble. You and your follies shall no longer cumber the earth ! Will you refuse the kind protection of sovereign nature ? Her true votaries pay homage to me also ! We have one common interest, obedient to the laws of the eternal God ! By food and raiment, labour and rest, fit and proper to your condition, and all the changes of the elements, by night and day, which we, the instruments of heaven, furnish, you are brought to maturity. The order is appointed by the great Lord of all ! Why are you reluctant to obey ?—Is your understanding darkened ?—Perceive you not that it is our province to assist in making you fit subjects for the regions of everlasting joy ? It is impossible for you to offend either of us with impunity ! If you reject our services, and wantonly grasp at the phantom, Pleasure, she will certainly elude your embrace ; and Disappointment, Pain, and Sorrow will suddenly fill your arms. You now fondly desire to increase this night's draught of joy ! I tell you, daughters, you are putting poison into your cup !—Learn to know when you have joy enough. Be temperate, and retreat ! Thus you will soon find that nature and I, your most faithful advocates, will obtain for you many the more chearful hours, sometimes raised to the height of mirth and festivity. Forget not your own interest ; shew your wisdom by your obedience, and respect us as your friends !

We shall add one more *characteristic* extract : Vol. ii. p. 34, speaking of the ladies, he says, ' In general you torture the hair of your heads till it stands *an end*, rising up against nature ; for, *by the laws of gravitation it should fall.*' Will not the ladies, and lady-like gentlemen, reply in the words of the lady he himself introduces, we ' think, Sir, you are too *serious* a man to be allowed to talk on such a subject ?' Vol. I. p. 89.

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*A Letter to the Rev. Mr. John Palmer, in Defence of the Illustrations of Philosophical Necessity. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.*

THE principal argument for the doctrine of necessity is briefly this ; if in two precisely equal situations of mind, with respect both to disposition and motives, two different determinations of the will be possible, one of them must be an effect without a cause : consequently only one of them is possible.

In opposition to this argument, Mr. Palmer has maintained, I. That whatever be the state of mind, or the motives present to it, it has within itself a power of determining without any

U 2 regard

regard to them, the *self-determining power* being itself the proper *cause* of the determination. 2. That though there should be the greatest *certainly* in all the determinations of the will, yet because it is not a *physical*, but only a *moral* certainty, it is not a proper *necessity*.

In this publication the author considers what Mr. Palmer has advanced on both these views of the subject.

On the first, he says, if the mind cannot finally determine without a motive, neither surely can it deliberate, that is, determine to deliberate, without a motive; because the volition to deliberate cannot be of a different nature from the volition, that is consequent to the deliberation.

2. The self-determining power, allowing that a man has such a thing, and that it may be the cause of determining in general, can never be deemed a sufficient cause of any one particular determination, in preference to another. Supposing, therefore, two determinations to be possible, and there be nothing but the mere self-determining power to decide between them, the disposition of mind and motives being all exactly equal, one of them must want a proper cause, just as much as the north or south wind would be without a proper cause, if nothing could be assigned but the motion of the air in general; without something to determine why it should move this way rather than that.

3. Mere power can never be said to be an adequate cause of its own acts. What, for instance, can be done with a power of burning without something to burn, and this being placed within its sphere of action? What is a power of thinking or judging without ideas, or objects, to think and form a judgment upon? What, therefore, can be done with a power of willing, without something to call it forth? And it is impossible to state any case, in which it can be called forth, without implying such circumstances as will come under the description of motives, or reasons for its being exerted one way rather than another.

In opposition to this way of reasoning, it may be replied, that motives are allowed; that they present themselves to the mind in the act of deliberation; that the mind, in considering the subject on all sides, *feels* the motives, by which it is determined; and that freedom consists in the *selection* of these motives, not in the determination, after the motives are selected.

I am deliberating, for example, whether I shall take a journey into the country, or not. On one hand I consider the fatigue, the inconvenience, and the expence of travelling; on the other, the pleasure and the advantage I shall receive from my journey; I contemplate the arguments on one side of the

question



question with more attention than the other, and I view them with pleasure. This contemplation is a voluntary act of the will, and perfectly consistent with the utmost freedom. The motives, then, which I have contemplated are the causes of my final determination; not the causes of my original *deliberation*; because at that time they had no existence in my mind. It was I myself who sought them out, and brought them forth into view. To say, therefore, that we are not free, because we are influenced by motives, is absurd. Our freedom is antecedent to the influence, or even the appearance, of any motive whatever; and consists in the investigation or selection of motives.

As a farther proof that the scheme of Dr. Priestley is indefensible, it may be observed, that, according to his way of reasoning, there can be *no freedom* of will in the *Deity* because the *Deity* must always be supposed to act on motives of equity and goodness, and consequently, that it would have been impossible for him to have made this world different from what it is; a position which, perhaps, the doctor himself will not maintain.

The reader who wishes to see any more of Dr. Priestley's arguments in reply to Mr. Palmer, must have recourse to the letter which occasions these remarks. The controversy is now growing trite, and we shall pursue it no farther.

*The Law and Practice of Distresses and Replevin. By the late Lord Chief Baron Gilbert. To which is added, an Appendix of Precedents. The second Edition, with considerable Illustrations. By a Barrister at Law. 8vo. 5s. Brooke.*

WE cannot but congratulate the profession on the republication of this treatise, which is allowed to be one of the most elaborate productions of the late chief baron Gilbert; especially as the subject matter essentially concerns every individual who enjoys any species of inheritance or possession. The doctrine of Distress, after being investigated on feudal principles, is regularly and minutely considered in all its branches. From thus elucidating the remedy which is given, by law, to the lord, the author proceeds to treat of the remedy, i. e. the Replevin, which is given to controvert the caption of the Distress. — The great professional learning which this tract displays, has long been acknowledged; and the judicious manner in which it is disposed, has ever been admired.

It is a common observation, the truth of which reflects some disgrace on the profession of the law, that no books are worse

edited than those which are confined to that profession. To what cause so gross an inattention is imputable, we know not. We are happy, however, to find that the present edition of the work now under consideration, is an exception to the imperfection above alluded to. This edition well deserves the attention of the profession; for the work has not only received a very minute correction, but the references, which are of the utmost consequence in all legal productions, have been carefully examined; many that were inapposite have been reraffected; those that were inaccurate have been rectified; and such as were necessary have been supplied. The divisions indeed have, in some measure, been altered, but at the same time others have been added. All the modern acts and decisions are most judiciously introduced; and to the whole is subjoined a few practical directions; as also a new and complete index. It is, however, matter of some surprize that the barrister should conceal his name from his profession and the world, inasmuch as no one need be ashamed of avowing himself the editor of this edition. The precedents are remarkably well chosen, and the practical directions the most plain and useful of any that could be conceived. On the whole, though this book is in some parts very scientific and professional, yet is it now rendered of great use to the public in general.

It has been said, whether truly or not we cannot determine, that a late learned judge afforded some assistance to this edition.

*Political Conferences between several great Men, in the last and present Century. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.*

**W**E cannot introduce this pamphlet more properly than with the advertisement prefixed to the Conferences.

The reader may possibly be induced to ask, if these Conferences are genuine? I answer, that I am only the Editor. According to the present fashion of depositing state papers, for the inspection of curiosity, in the hands of some respectable person, the editor would have been glad to have had it in his power to have left the original manuscripts in the hand-writing of one of the interlocutors, for public satisfaction, with Mr. Cadell the bookseller. But if these men (as great men as England ever saw) express themselves just as they are made to do in our most authentic and circumstantial histories, he can see no useful reason for treating their conversations as fictitious. Depend upon it, they are more real than half the orations and dialogues, civil or political, of Grecian or Roman historians and rhetoricians, and will give as legitimate information as our parliamentary debates. Take an instance that presents itself to the memory and pen of the editor. The conference recorded by Dion Cassius, between Augustus, Agrippa, and Mæcenæ, is related with all the minuteness of real conversation. It was upon the greatest question that could be discussed in the cabinet of the senate;

senate; no less than whether Augustus should retain his power or restore the commonwealth. In the opinion of discerning persons, this conversation, never could happen. Augustus no more than Oliver Cromwell would suffer such a matter to be debated, that could lead to deposing himself, or abdicating the government. What is out of character, must be out of truth. It is presumed, there is no such distortion of features in any of the political dramatic personæ in this collection. For the veracity of these closet conversations, there cannot, in the nature of the thing, be many vouchers. Now they are presented to the world, and exhibit all the internal marks of having been once the living language of the appropriated personages, the editor hopes they may be acceptable to the lovers of secret history and of anecdote. Clarendon, Whitlock, D'Ewes, and others, give us many important expressions, opinions, and debates of senatorial men, which would have been lost but for their having preserved them in their memorials and journals. It is owing to the forward zeal of the present editor, that the following private conferences, on that account perhaps the more interesting, are rescued from oblivion, and thus are permitted to see the light.

The first of these conferences is held between lord Strafford and Mr. Pym. In this conversation, the latter reproaches his lordship with a change of political principles, which lord Strafford, on the other hand, endeavours to defend, as being entirely consistent with the nature of the English constitution, and rendered more justifiable by the peculiar exigence of the times. This apology, however, not proving satisfactory, the republican commoner breaks off the conference with a threat that he will never relinquish the prosecution of so obnoxious a servant of the crown, while lord Strafford has a head upon his shoulders.

In a note subjoined to this conference, it is observed, that Carte and other writers acknowledge a conversation of a very expostulatory nature between Strafford and Pym, which is said to have ended with the threatening declaration abovementioned. That such an interview between those parties really happened, seems not improbable, from the vehemence of Pym's disposition; and it derives farther confirmation from the active part which he took in the impeachment of that unfortunate nobleman.

The second conference is between Sir Harry Vane and Mr. Whitlock; supposed to have been held about the beginning of December 1664. It relates to that offspring of fanaticism, *the self-denying ordinance*, which was moved in parliament by the former of those personages, and is opposed with arguments by the latter.

The third conference is between Oliver Cromwell, and Edmund Waller; supposed to be held at Whitehall sometime in 1654.

The fourth conference is between William Lenthall, Esq. late speaker of the Long Parliament, and Sir Edward Hyde, afterwards earl of Clarendon. This interview is said to have happened in 1660. As we are told in a note, that Lenthall's descendant, now living at Burford, relates the traditionary story of this

this visit of his ancestor to Sir Edward Hyde, and of what passed between them, we shall, upon this collateral evidence of its authenticity, present our readers with the conversation, which strongly marks the characters and sentiments of the two speakers.

*Lenthal.* All those people who prostrated themselves at your levee, and behaved with so much flattery and submission, bowed the knee in the same manner, for many years, to the speaker of the Long Parliament. They have done worshipping me, and now the times are changed, they idolize the rising sun.

*Hyde.* You have had homage paid you long enough. Since your sun is permitted to go down quietly, and does not set in blood, you ought to be satisfied. When mine gets past the meridian, I shall not expect to be followed much longer. I am not to be deceived nor delighted with the incense that is offered me on this occasion. The attachment is more frequently to the station than to the man, as you now experience. The scene that lately opened, displays more tokens of zeal than perhaps of sincerity, and allowance is to be made accordingly. The Restoration accepts of new converts as well as of old friends, and promises an oblivion of its enemies. Round-heads, as well as cavaliers, are permitted to partake of the present festivity.

*Lenthal.* I was not the last who came into the invitation of the royal family. It is known to several about the king, that the Restoration could not have taken place without my assistance. When the throne became vacant in forty-eight, I would have filled it with the heir of the kingdom, if my wishes or endeavours could have accomplished it. But it was not the Lord's time till now.

*Hyde.* I believe you sat in the speaker's chair, with no ill-will to monarchy, nor to episcopacy.

*Lenthal.* Nor to the late king.

*Hyde.* And yet, you did not take any methods to prevent the desperate votes against him.

*Lenthal.* I had not sagacity enough to think it possible the independents would have proceeded to the last violence. Perhaps I had not strength of mind to do what some others in my place might have attempted. I was cajoled and outwitted by Cromwell, Ireton, and some more of that faction. But it is no wonder I was overreached by them, when they were too cunning and daring for the house and the whole nation. I was but a cypher amongst such glaring figures. I was considered as much a bauble as my mace, which Cromwell afterwards jested upon, when he broke in upon rule and order, and expelled us.

*Hyde.* Your timidity did as much harm to the royal cause, as could have been effected by your malice.

*Lenthal.* Those who elected me, knew how to make me their instrument. I trembled like Felix, on another occasion, when the king came to demand the five members; but it was concealed under the prudence of my reply, that I had no eyes to see, nor tongue to speak with, but what the house was pleased to give me. My constant behaviour was that of an obedient servant of the house, of which yourself, whilst you continued amongst us, was a witness down to the present convention. I became the less willing to quit and fling off my robes, when I thought a successor might easily be found, who could do more mischief.

*Hyde.*

' *Hyde*. But you was reconciled at last to your situation, and became very easy. You could bend like a willow to every power that became uppermost. You accommodated yourself to the rump and the usurper, and, but for the tide turning in favour of monarchy, you would have been content to have died in the chair. You was ready to accept any title or mark of honour from their hands, I mean not, at this season, to reproach you, but only to observe upon you.

' *Lenthall*. I am sure you are of too noble a disposition to condemn with severity the vanity and weakness of a doating old man. I wept, and covered myself with sackcloth and ashes in private, when the sentence against the king was executed. If I seemed to acquiesce under my new task-masters, it was in common with the submission of wiser and better men than myself. Monarchy appeared to be buried with the king, and I imagine you were taught to believe so on the other side of the water. Whether the remains of the Long Parliament, or general Monk, the sword, or a republic, was to govern, the law, the constitution, and the king, seemed to be out of every body's view and expectations. As soon as a chance presented itself, of shaking off the yoke of democracy, I contributed every thing in my power to bring over the king.

' *Hyde*. It could not have been in your power to have kept him out. The spirit of the nation was so strong for monarchy, that no single hand could hold it down. The king discovered such joy, lighted up in the countenances of his subjects, all the way from Dover, that he said, he was sure it must have been his own fault that he was kept out of his dominions so long.

' *Lenthall*. Every difficulty was removed by the well-penned declaration from Breda, which breathes so much moderation and comfort to all men who have been mistaken or misled. Neither parliament nor people, after that was sent over, wished to impose any shackles or make terms with him.

' *Hyde*. There is no necessity for it. For the king is of so true a judgment, has so good a temper, besides being pretty well past the giddy age of pleasure, and has such a proper memory of the hardships he has undergone at home and abroad, that a treaty with him would have spoiled all. I have no doubt this parliament will be a healing one, and make the errors and enormities of that of forty-one, which elected you to the chair, be forgot, or only remembered as the rock which helped to shipwreck the constitution of church and state.

' *Lenthall*. You are likely to enjoy the blessings of the new reign, and are qualified to influence by your counsels your sovereign, to make his people in love with monarchy, and to advise him how to steer between privilege and prerogative.

' *Hyde*. If one ever comes in competition with the other, the prerogative, in my judgment, must be made to give way to privilege. For it was almost the dying advice of a very wise father, not to let, as the profession of the law generally inclines men to do, prerogative run riot, and trample upon the liberty of the subject. It will be the people's own fault if they are not completely happy. The king will grant a pardon to all but whom the parliament excepts, which will be only those who had a hand in his father's death. I believe he will not have a foe in the whole kingdom, but the obstinate adherents to the old cause, and the solemn league and covenant.

' *Lenthall*. I have to thank you for hearing me so patiently, and per-

permitting me to remove any ungracious misconceptions of me. I am too ancient and infirm, to be capable of doing any more service or further harm. I am forbid even to hope to see the halcyon days you prophecy. I wish your master may have sufficient confidence in you, and that you may obtain, not the camelion kind of respect which comes and goes, and is the lot of all lord chancellors for the time being, but the reverence and the prayers of all good Englishmen.

The fifth conference is between lord Danby, lord Devonshire, and lord Delamere, immediately before the Revolution in 1688. Those personages are said to have met at a little village, called Whittington, in Derbyshire; and the room they sat in still goes by the name of the Plotting Parlour.

The sixth conference is between Robert earl of Oxford, and Matthew Prior, Esq. and supposed to be held the 27th of June, 1715, on lord Bolingbroke's retiring suddenly to France.

The next interlocutors are Sir Robert Walpole, and Mr. Pelham, who are supposed to hold their conversation the second or third of February, 1741.

In respect of these conferences it may be sufficient to observe, they must be considered, however plausible, at least as of doubtful origin. — But should we view them in the light only of *Dialogues of the Dead*, we cannot withhold from the author the praise of great ingenuity. The characters are strongly marked, and well supported; and the conferences relate to such periods of time as afford the fullest display of the sentiments of the several speakers.

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Friderici Adolphi Van der Marck, J Cti — *Lectiones Academicæ, quibus selecta Philosophia Practica Jurisque Naturæ Capita, et præcipue officia erga Deum pertractantur.* 8vo. Groningæ. — Tomus II. Quo præcipua Juris Ecclesiastici Protestantium Universalis Capita pertractantur, Fasciculus I. 8vo. Ibid. — Tomus II. Fascic. II. 8vo. Lingæ. — Tomus II. Fasc. III. & ultimus. 8vo. Lingæ.

Ejusd. *Oratio inauguralis de Gloria Dei, Suprema Naturæ Lege, e suggestu sacro Templi Reformatorum, die Dec.—17 publice dicta, quum Professionem Juris Ord. in Acad. Lingens. solemniter auspicaretur.* 8vo. Lipsiæ, Berolini, & Utrajecti.

THIS Course of Academical Lectures deserves particular notice, not only on account of its intrinsic merits, but also of the persecutions raised against its learned author, by some zealots, who at length succeeded to force him to take refuge in the Prussian dominions, where he found a generous reception and entire liberty of speaking and printing his sentiments.

The Lectures treat of the following interesting subjects. Vol. I. Lect. I. De Ratione humana a non-usu & abusu ad rectum ejus usum reducenda. II. De perfruitione Summi Boni; of the enjoyment and imitation of God. III. De fine creationis ultimo et officii hominum

minum erga se invicem inde oriundis: the happiness of rational creatures, IV. De Obligatione activa. Wolfius's doctrine on this subject is here adopted, illustrated and justified. V. De Lege Naturæ & inde oriunda Obligatione passiva. VI. De principio cognoscendi Legem Naturæ. VII. De Moralitate interna: a defence of Grotius' and Wolfius' sentiments on this head. VIII. De Limitibus Jurisprudentiæ Naturalis per Philosophiam practicam & Theologiam Christianorum moralem proferendis. IX. De Conscientia, X. De Historia Juris Naturalis quoad Officia erga Deum. XI. De Officiis erga Deum in Disciplina Juris Naturalis pertractandis: chiefly pointed against Puffendorf. XII.—XIV. De vera vivaque Dei Cognitione Hominibus comparanda. XV. De Amore in Deum. XVI. De Timore Dei filiali atque de Fiducia in Deum & Acquiescentia in Providentia divina. XVII. De Reverentia Deo exhibenda. XVIII. De Celebratione Nominis Divini. XIX. De Invocatione Dei & Gratiarum Actione. XX. De Obedientia Deo præstanda.

Vol. II. Lect. I. II. De Religione optimo Civitatis Fine, atque firmissimo ejus Præsidio; an excellent confutation of Hobbes and Puffendorf. III. IV. De Jure libertatis Religionis Unicuius adversum quemvis competente. V.—VIII. De Tolerantia diversarum Religionum Fini Reipublicæ haud adversarum civili. IX.—XI. De Varia Hæreseos Significatione, ejusdemque injustissima Poena. XII. De Crimine Hæreticicii ejusque justissima Poena.

Vol. II. Fasc. II. Lect. XIII. De varia Ecclesiæ Significatione et vera ejus indole. Internal or Invisible Church, the only Universal Church. XIV. XV. De Tolerantia Religionum ecclesiastica. XVI. De Ecclesia plantanda & plantata, ejusque Juribus et Obligationibus. The former has inspired teachers; the latter, not: hence the difference of the teachers of the former, being a distinct order, in society; and those of the latter, not. XVII. De diverso Ecclesiarum Regimine. No constitution whatever of government is absolutely essential to Christianity. XVIII. De Ludovici Molinæi Parænesi ad Ædificatores imperii in imperio. A judicious abstract of an excellent and scarce treatise; whose author too was persecuted for his sentiments on that head; as appears from Thomasi Hist. Conc. inter Imp. & Sacr. Append. c. i. f. 45. 50. XIX. De inepta Divisione inter Clericos & Laicos: this inept distinction seems to have been already introduced in the times of Tertullian, when the attributes of the priests of the Old Testament began to be applied to these of the New Testament; but is now wearing out apace, thanks to Grotius, Selden, Conringius, Puffendorf, Thomasi, and other eminent philosophers and lawyers. XX. De ritu Ordinationis sacræ per Manuum Impositionem, ubi simul de Jurejurando Religionis & de vestibus clericalibus breviter tractatur. XXI. De Distinctione inter Spirituales & Mundanos, de Nazaræis, de Brachio Spirituali & Seculari, & de Ecclesia repræsentativa. That representation can only find place in civil affairs, and by no means in the determination and establishment of doctrines of faith. XXII. XXIII. De Episcopatu Constantini M. That emperor's idea of external and internal episcopacy shewn to be inadequate and false. XXIV. XXV. De Systemate Regiminis Ecclesiastici Vættiano, XXVI. De Systemate Reg. Eccles. Moshemiano. XXVII. De vero Juris Eccles. Systemate. The internal rights belong to every member; the external and collegial ones are a part of the rights of majesty and sovereignty. XXVIII. De Incommodis ex certa Regiminis Ecclesiastici Forma, quæ a Republica non pendeat in Civitates redundantibus. XXIX. De Societate

tate Ecclesiæ æquali, & in Casu Controversiæ circa Jus ejusdem æternum judicio Civitatis subjiçienda.

Fasc. III. Lect XXX. De Statu Religionis in Republica Germanicæ politico. XXXI. De Statu Religionum in Federata Belgarum Republica politico. XXXIII. De Pontificiorum Sacris, eorum demque Tolerantia & Libertate in Belgio federato: founded on the Union at Utrecht and the Peace of Munster. XXXIV. De Excommunicatione ecclesiastica; ubi simul Vlr. Stuberi hac de re Sententiæ examinatur. XXXV. Qua Historia Doctrinæ de Excommunicatione ecclesiastica proponitur, simulque de *Erafi Theſibus* agitur. XXXVI. De vera indole Excommunicationis ecclesiasticæ. XXXVII. De Jure Clavium Regni Cœlorum. XXXVIII. De Traditione Satanz, de Abſſiſſione aut Exciſſione; ceterisque excommunicationis ecclesiasticæ argumentis, quæ ab aliis adferri ſolent. XXXIX. De Supremæ Ecclesiarum Lege & Judice controversiarum in Ecclesia obortarum. XL. XLI. De Conciliis Ecclesiasticis, & Jure Principis circa ea & reliqua Sacra Majestatico, &c. &c.

*Bedenkingen en Bezwaarden door de Welerewaarde en zeer geleerde Heeren Predicanten, Petrus Abresch, Lambertus van Bolhuis, Theodorus Lubbers; en Stermann Knock, uit Naame van des Welerewaarde Classis van Groeningen en het Gorecht overgegeeven an den grooten Senaat der hooge Schoole, van Stad en Lande op en tegen de Academische Lessen, van M. Fried. Ad. van der Marck, &c. met deszelefs Verklaring op en tegen die Bedenkingen en Bezwaarden. 8vo. Groeningen. (Dutch.)*

IN the publication entitled *Bedenkingen en Bezwaarden*, Prof. Van der Mark, was, by the very reverend and learned Messrs. Abresch, Bolhuis, Lubbers and Knock, in the name of the rev. class of the clergy of Groeningen, and its districts, accused before the academical senate, of having, in his lectures, denied,

1. Original sin, and the general corruption of mankind, and their innate blindness in spiritual and divine matters.

2. Regeneration, and the necessity of the efficacious operations of the Holy Ghost.

3. Special grace, in appropriating or imputing the merits of the Mediator Jesus Christ.

Mr. Vander Marck, in reply, proved, not only that he had expressed himself on these subjects in terms sanctioned by the authority of the most orthodox Dutch divines; but also, that the conduct of his antagonists was illegal, and inconsistent with the laws of the country: yet, after some farther printed altercations, replies, and rejoinders, the learned and virtuous professor was by his judges sentenced to be excluded from the holy communion, and dismissed from his professorship. In a short time after, he was invited to a professorship at Lingen, and not only received into the bosom of that reformed church, notwithstanding the excommunication by the clergy of Groeningen, but also appointed one of her elders.

*Meditationes Physico-Chemicæ de Origine Mundi, in primis Geocosmi, quorundamque Metamorphosi, a Joh. G. Wallerio. 8vo. Stockholm.*

THIS celebrated naturalist begins his meditations with inquiries concerning the nature of fire and light. He thinks the sun not a burning, but a merely luminous body, consisting of the light produced by God on the first day of the creation; or of the finest, purest, and most spirituous particles only. The entire transmutation



tion of water into earth, both by nature and art, he considers as an indisputable truth. He deduces the origin of all terraneous bodies from water, and thinks that the whole earth, with all her present parts, has once been a fluid. His system supposes two elements. All solid bodies he composes of particles, invifible, fixed, in themselves immoveable, hard and immutable, fuch as he finds in water: the other element confifts of particles yet incomparably finer, and almoft inconceivably fine, volatile, and moveable, fuch as are found in luminous matter. But of thefe nearly oppofite elements, heaven and earth, or as the Eafterns fay, light and darknefs, or fire and earth, in his opinion, our globe, and the whole world are formed. He alfo delivers his sentiments and conjectures concerning the revolutions which have happened on the furface of our globe; and endeavours every where to illuftrate the accounts given by Mofes, whom he reveres as the greateft naturalift, and a man infpired by Heaven.

Joannis Tobiaë Krebsii, *Gr. Opuscula Academica et Scholaftica, denuo recognita.* 8vo. Lipfiæ.

A Valuable collection of fhort effays and trafts on the following fubjects: 1. Difputatio de Ephetis, Athenienfium Judicibus. 2. Comment. de Stelitis Athenienfium. 3. Comment. de Judicium Romanorum Decuriis. 4. Comment. de Præfefto Urbis Romano. 5. De Provocatione D. Pauli ad Cæfarem. 6. Elogium M. Henr. Aug. Schumacheri, L. fere Annos Reftoris Scholæ Grimmeræ meritiſſimi. 7. Proluſio de Finibus Grammatici regundis. 8. De Scholis bene conſtitutis Eccleſiæ et Reipublicæ Seminariis. 9. Proluſio de Prudentia diſciplinæ Scholaſticæ regundæ. 10. Proluſio de magna vi neglectæ Educationis domeſticæ in Diſciplinam ſcholaſticam. 11. Proluſio de Feſtinato Juvenum diſceſſu e Scholis. 12. Proluſio de docendi ratione Socratica Inſtitutioni Juvenum in Scholis perquam accommodata. 13. Proluſio de Malitioſo Luciani conſilio, Religionem Chriſtianam ſcurrili dicacitate vanam et ridiculam reddendi. 14. Proluſio de Argumentis pro Veritate Religionis Chriſtiænæ e Juliani reliquiis. 15. Proluſio de Felici Theologiæ et Literaturæ Connubio. 16. Proluſio, qua Lectio Auctorum veterum e Baſilii Magni Diſciplina commendatur. 17. Proluſio, qua renovata Conſtitutio Scholaſtica Parentum curæ in Diſciplina domeſtica commendatur. 18. Proluſio, qua Decretum Byzantinorum, factum in Honorem Athenienſium, emendatur et illuſtratur. 19. Vannus critica in inanes paleas Operis Elementaris Baſedoviani. 20. Proluſio de Ratione, Novi Teſtamenti e Moribus antiquis illuſtrandi, minus caute inſtituta.

Learning and ingenuity are conſpicuouſly diſplayed in all theſe ſhort effays; and though ſeveral thoughts, and many expreſſions are liable to objections, others are excellent. The book, upon the whole, is worthy being peruſed by antiquaries and critical readers.

*Kritiſche Unterſuchung vom Gebrauch der heiligen Schrift unter den alten Chriſten in den erſten Vier Jahrhunderten: or, a Critical Enquiry into the Uſe of the holy Bible among the ancient Chriſtians during the firſt four Centuries.* By Dr. Walch. 8vo. Goettingen. (German.)

SOME very learned and eminent men having lately aſſerted, that the ſaity among the ancient Chriſtians were forbidden to read the Bible; and this aſſertion bearing an unfavourable appearance to Chriſtianity, Dr. Walch was deſired to enter into a critical

critical enquiry of its truth. He begins it with an account of the true nature, importance, and history of this question, and then proceeds to the trial of the evidence, or to a collection and chronological arrangement of all the passages and informations extant, in the works both of the fathers and of pagan writers, which relate directly or indirectly to this use of the Bible. Whenever the credibility or substance of an information was liable to any objection, he has immediately confronted and examined both. From the evidences thus examined, he sums up the following conclusions: Of what books are these ancient writers speaking? What was the purpose intended by this use of the Bible? to learn the dogmatical and moral precepts of Christianity—to believe them as inspired by God—to confute heretics. In what did this use consist? in hearing the Bible read and expounded—in sermons—delivered even by laymen—and in reading it. This was done by all Christians indiscriminately, and especially by laymen. Not only no historical evidence of the reading of the Bible's having been limited to any class of persons is to be met with, but from the evidences here collected it appears, that the teachers declared the reading and study of the Bible a general duty, the performance of which they required from lay persons, even from children: that they commended laymen on account of their diligence, and reproved them on account of their neglect in this study; that they confuted their apologies for this neglect, and invited even pagans to study the Bible. They bring us, moreover, acquainted with pagans, with lay Christians of both sexes, with catechumenes, with children, with monks, who were then laymen, all of them reading the Bible themselves. From the history of the *Traditors* it appears, that not only Bibles belonging to churches, but also such as were private property, were seized by the persecutors. This general, free, and indiscriminate study of the Bible by persons of every rank, class, sex, and age, appears to be liable to difficulties, abuses, and objections; these, however, were not only noticed, but also satisfactorily answered by the fathers. It has been asserted, that laymen then contented themselves with their symbol of baptism: these confessions of faith, however, were never considered as a catechism. Their substance was required to be proved from the Bible. The catechumenes had read the Bible before they were even allowed to hear the confessions of faith.

As Dr Walch has strictly observed the law of asserting nothing without quoting his vouchers, he was so much more justly entitled to insist in his preface, on the unreasonableness and danger of publishing, without any proofs, mere conjectures, often utterly destitute of foundation, and so exceedingly prejudicial to religion.

Torberni Bergman, &c. *Opuscula Physica et Chemica. Vol. I. cum Tabulis Æneis.* 8vo. Stockholm, Upsal, & Abo.

A Most valuable collection of short tracts, successively occasioned by the author's official duties, and his connections with a number of academies and literary societies, and here reprinted with corrections and improvements. An introduction de indagando vero, points out the way by which the chemist may hope to arrive at truth, and proves the same penetration and acuteness so conspicuous in the author's other works.

The first dissertation de Acido Aëreo, has long been known. The second, the *Analyti Aquarum*, may be considered as one of the

the best tracts ever written on the subject, and abounds with original experiments and mature judgment. The third treats of *Aquis Upsalienfibus*. Upsal abounds in excellent water. 4. *De Fonte Acidulari Dannemarkensi*. 5. *De Aqua Pelagica*. 6. *De Aquis Medicatis frigidis Arte parandis*. 7. *De Aquis Medicatis calidis Arte parandis*. 8. *De Acido Sacchari*; an important dissertation, full of original experiments, on a subject hitherto little examined and understood. 9. *De Confectione Aluminis*, containing, among a variety of other useful informations, very curious accounts of the seven Swedish alum-works. They were all established during the last and the present century; the most important is at *Garphytta*, in *Nericia*, (*Nerike*), which, from ten pans, it had in 1766, was, in 1769, already increased to thirty. 10. *De Tartaro Antimoniato*. 11. *De Magnesia*.

## FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

*Brevis Introductio in Historiam Litterariam Mineralogicam atque Methodum Systemata Mineralogica rite condendi, una cum Supplementis.* Auct. Wallerio, &c. 8vo. Stockholm, &c.

A SHORT and excellent introduction, originally published under the title of *Lucubrationum Academicarum Specimen* 1. *De Systematibus Mineralogicis & Systemate Mineralogico rite condendo*, and now revised and improved; with an appendix, containing the author's judgments of the most celebrated modern systems of mineralogy.

F. Vine Fassinis, O. P. in *Pisano Athenæo*, S. Lit. P. P. *Divine Libri Apocalypseos Auctoritatis Vindiciæ, ex Monumentis Græcis adversus nuperas exceptiones Firmini Abauzitii, Genevensis*. 8vo. Lucca.

The vouchers for the divine inspiration of the Revelation, are here, indeed, fully enumerated, but by no means examined with a strict and critical accuracy. The author's Latin diction is excellent.

*Anfibi e Pesci di Sardegna*. 8vo. Sassari in Sardinia.

A continuation of Signor Cetti's valuable natural history of the island of Sardinia.

*Observationes in Matthæum, ex Græcis Inscriptionibus.* Auctore Jo. Ern. Imman. Walchio. 8vo. Jenæ.

The following are some of the most interesting remarks contained in this small volume: the expression, πολλοὶ ἀνακλιθὲν βοῆται μετ' Ἀβραάμ, illustrated from the ideas of the ancients *de Diis parēdous*: the expression *ἡ δὲ μετὰ*, si secus fecerit, illustrated by examples from Epictetus: the distinction between *αἶχρον* and *αἶχρονισμός*, by way of illustration to Matth. ix. 18. collated with Mark v. 22, &c. &c. To these remarks two dissertations have been subjoined: 1. *De Potu Servatoris moribundi*. 2. On the *εὐχρησις* in the eastern style.

J. J. Reiske *Conjecturae in Jobum, et Proverbia Salomonis, cum ejusdem Oratiōe de Studio Linguae Arabicæ*. 8vo. Lipsiæ.

Though the title promises only conjectures, the book contains some valuable illustrations of the text from the Arabic.

*Le Philosophe Catholique, ou Entretiens sur la Religion, entre le Comte de . . . et le Chevalier de . . . par M. l'Abbé Peyn. 12mo. Paris.*

A well-meaning, methodical performance, breathing the spirit and love of order, truth, and virtue.

*Traité de la Conservation des Enfans, ou Moyens de les fortifier, de les préserver, et de les guérir de leurs différentes Maladies; ou l'on développe tous les meilleurs Systèmes sur la Generation, les differens Etats et Dangers du Fœtus et de la grossesse, et la Maniere de les prévenir et d'en connoître les vrais Symptômes, par M. Raulin, M. D. &c. 2d edition. 3 Vols. Paris.*

An useful compilation from the most approved works on the subject, enriched by the author's own original observations and reflections.

*Diſſionnaire historique de la Ville de Paris et de ses Environs, par M. M. Hurtaut et Magny. 4 Vols 8vo. Paris.*

An useful, and even a necessary book for whoever desires to obtain minute and accurate informations concerning the city and environs of Paris, and their curiosities.

*Les Juvenales. 8vo. Geneve.*

Four indifferent satires on French manners.

*Le Livre de tous les Ages, ou le Pibras moderne, Quatrains moraux, par M. P. Sylvain Maréchal. Small 8vo. Paris.*

Short and elegantly plain moral stanzas, accompanied with a useful commentary.

*Joannis Vorſii de Hebraïſmis Novi Teſtamenti Commentarius. Acceſſere præter ejuſdem Cogitata de Stylo N. T. et Diatriben de Adagiis N. T. Horatii Vitringæ Animadverſiones ad Commentarium de Hebraïſmis N. T. Curavit. Joh. Frid. Fiſcher. 8vo. Lipſiæ.*

The character of the valuable works here reprinted are well known. The editor's merits in this publication conſiſt only in the correction of the preſs, and a recommendatory preface.

*Des Herrn Alexander Giraffi Maſaniello. Nebſt einer genauen Geſchichte des groſſen Aufruhrs zu Neapel unter dem Herzog von Arcos; mit einigen Beylagen und einem Anhang. Aus dem Italiæniſchen überſetzt; or, Signor Alex. Giraffi's Maſaniello, with an accurate Hiſtory of the great Sedition at Naples, under the Duke of Arcos: with ſome State Papers and an Appendix, tranſlated from the Italian. 8vo. Augſburgh. (German.)*

When or where the Italian original was published, or whether the German book is tranſlated from an Italian MS. we are not told. But the preſent account of that memorable ſedition is evidently authentic and accurate; drawn up by Giraffi, a contemporary of Maſaniello, and an eye witneſs of the tranſactions. His narrative is well written and well tranſlated, and accompanied with ſome uſeful papers, and ſome account of the ſedition raiſed one hundred years before, by another, Thomas Aniello; and that raiſed fifty years after, under the duke of Oſſuna.

MONTH.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## P O L I T I C A L.

*An Argument on the Nature of Party and Faction.* 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

**T**HE author of this pamphlet is Mr. Capel Loft, who inquires into the duty of a good and peaceable citizen at the present crisis. He sets out with a specious descant on the evil tendency of parties in a state; professing an abhorrence of all political motives that are not connected with the public welfare. Before he has proceeded far, however, he seems to lose sight of those principles; for we soon find him betraying all the prejudice and virulence of the most inveterate enemy to administration; and exemplifying, in his own conduct, a character directly opposite to that of a good and peaceable citizen, which he had proposed to delineate.

*The Phenomenon; or, Northern Comet.* 8vo. 2s. W. Richardson.

The design of this pamphlet is to shew that all the evils and misfortunes which have befallen this kingdom, from the close of the last war to the present time, are owing to 'one, sole, individual and identical person.' Congenial with this proposition is the strain of the whole pamphlet, which contains nothing more than a petulant, furious, and absurd invective against a nobleman who several years ago retired from the administration.

*An Account of some Particulars relative to the Meeting held at York, on the 30th of December, 1779.* By Leonard Smelt, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Becket.

In our last Review we took notice of a speech said to have been delivered by Leonard Smelt, esq. at the meeting of the county of York, December 30th, 1779. Understanding that it was published without the authority of the gentleman to whom it was ascribed, we did not consider it as an authentic production; and that this idea was well founded, appears from the pamphlet now before us. Mr. Smelt there affirms, that in the repeated publications of the speech attributed to him, neither the mode of expressing his sentiments, the order in which they were delivered, nor the intended application of them, has been accurately observed. That much has likewise been added, and much omitted. He therefore delivers a genuine account of the sentiments he expressed on that occasion. It thence appears, that however his speech has been misrepresented, through prejudice or erroneous construction, it is distinguished by a strain of spirited sentiment, of just remarks, and of a zealous attachment to the constitutional prerogatives of the crown.

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X

Two

*Two Letters from D. Hartley, Esq. M.P. Addressed to the Committee of the County of York. 8vo. 6d. Almon.*

The former of those Letters seems to be intended as an incentive to the York Committee, for vigorously prosecuting a redress of the alleged national grievances. Consistently with this intention, the author warmly declaims on those political topics which, to the great disturbance of the public tranquillity, have lately become so common. In the second Letter he endeavours to vindicate America for entering into an alliance with the House of Bourbon against Great Britain.

*The Associators Vindicated; and the Protesters Answered. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.*

This is an impotent attempt to vindicate the county associations from the charge of an apparent intention to over-awe the legislature. Their pernicious tendency is indeed so obvious, that they have been disapproved by many who were forward in promoting the petitions. If those associations are calculated to serve any purpose, it must either be to enforce an immediate compliance with the request of the petitions, or to influence the ensuing general election in such a manner, as that this end may be obtained from a new parliament. In either case the expedient is equally unconstitutional; destroying in the former the freedom of parliament, and in the latter that of election, the two greatest securities of public liberty.

*Observations on an Address to the Freeholders of Middlesex, assembled at Freemason's Tavern, on the 20th of December, 1779. 8vo. 6d. Bowen.*

The author of the Observations plainly evinces, from the words of the Address, that its object was actually to procure a change in the form of the British government; an innovation which must be reprobated by all who either know the excellence of our constitution, or have any regard for the public tranquillity.

*A Letter to L—d Th———, &c. 8vo. 1s. Faulder.*

The writer of this Letter urges his Lordship to exert all his influence for producing a change of some of the principal members of administration. To a petition of such a nature, it may well be expected, the highly esteemed personage will demur.

*Seasonable Advice to the People of Ireland, during the present recess of Parliament. 8vo. 6d. Wilkie.*

The author of this pamphlet strongly recommends to the people of Ireland, not to make any requisition to the British legislature respecting the repeal of Poynings' law; as they have already obtained every concession that can either prove really advantageous to them, or is consistent with the honour of England to bestow. The advice is sensible, and merits the attention of all who wish well to their country.

*Thoughts on the dangerous Tendency of employing Foreigners.* 8vo.  
1s. 6d. Faulder.

The author of this pamphlet inveighs with great acrimony against the fashionable encouragement of foreigners, particularly during the continuance of a war with their country. When such a partiality operates to the prejudice of the industrious natives of our own country, the complaint is doubtless well founded; but to discourage foreigners to a degree beyond what is authorized by this consideration, seems neither to be liberal nor politic. We therefore partly commend, and partly disapprove of the considerations urged by this writer.

## P O E T R Y.

*The American Times: a Satire.* 4to. 2s. W. Richardson.

A political poem, and, like other political poems, affording very little entertainment. It seems to be written by some American, who is well acquainted with the characters and business of all the rebel chiefs, and indeed of all the principal persons who have figured on that side of the Atlantic, either in the cabinet or the field. Against all these the author throws his fiery darts or satire with great vehemence. Whether the gentlemen they are levelled at will feel or be hurt by them, we cannot pretend to determine; certain, however, it is, that our poet *cries aloud and spares not*:

‘ Morris, look up—for so thy name we spell—  
On earth *Bob Morris*—Mammon ’tis in hell’

What will the unfortunate *Bob Morris* say to this? especially if like his name-sake,—but as we find a little farther on

‘ — his tongue he never balks, — but

On all things talkable he boldly talks;’

*Bob Morris* need not complain; for *Washington, Gates, Wayne, Reed, Houston*, and a hundred more whom we never heard of, come in for their share of the poet’s indignation; he brings them all before him, tries, condemns, and punishes.

‘ Legions and shoals of all prodigious forms,  
Loud as the rattling of a thousand storms,  
Gorgons in look, and Caffres in address,  
Dutch, Yankies, yellow-wigs for audience press;  
Wretches, whose acts the very French abhor,  
Commissioners of loans, and boards of war,  
Marine committees, commissaries, scribes,  
Assemblies, councils, senatorial tribes,  
Vain of their titles all attention claim,  
Proud of dishonour, glorying in their shame.’

But all our poet’s rage, and all his tortures, are, we find, to no purpose; for, as he shrewdly remarks,

‘ Was Samuel Adams to become a ghost,  
Another Adams would assume his post;  
Was bustling Hancock number’d with the dead,  
Another full as wise might raise his head;’

X a

— And

'— And what if Lee, and what if Sales fell,  
Or what if Franklin should go down to hell,  
Why should we grieve? the land, 'tis understood,  
Can furnish hundreds equally as good.'

We would advise our author, therefore, who, though a very honest and loyal subject, is certainly no great poet, to lay down his pen, and trouble himself no more about a set of miscreants who are not worth his powder and shot any more than they are of *our's*, though they have already had too much of both. — We heartily wish that these gentlemen were left to themselves, and we should then have more leisure to fight and write against the *French and Spaniards*.

*Seduction: the Spirit of the Times, or Petitions unmasked. A Poem.* 4to. 1s. Beckwith.

The author of this may, for aught we know, be what he styles himself in the title-page, a *real patriot*; he is most certainly, however, but a *mock poet*, as we do not remember a copy of verses, for that we think is the proper phrase for them, so totally void of every thing that comes within the idea of poetry. As a specimen, take the few following lines, which are instances of the true bathos.

" The enormous sums we yearly  
Pay, to the civil list we dearly  
Earn, by the sweat of our own brow,  
How is't exhausted, tell us how?  
The privy purse we all well know,  
Is open to both friend and foe;  
The goodness of his majesty,  
Perspicuous shines in charity;  
But then economy's the thing,  
For which we pray, or prayers we bring."

These verses, and they are of the same kind from beginning to end, are much beneath a school-boy's, and greatly inferior to the annual strains of a parish bell-man.

*The Prophecy: a Poem. Addressed to Mr. Burke.* 4to. 6d. Becket.

Amongst all the ill consequences of domestic quarrels and party rage, not the least of their bad effects is that glut of poetical nonsense which they never fail to produce. From this hot-bed of politics has sprung up this tasteless poetical mushroom, void of all good smell and flavour, as our readers will see by the following short quotation. The commissioners of the board of trade thus pathetically lament the loss of their places.

' First G——n cries, " The task be mine  
To write my fav'rite board's decline;  
I'll the sad hist'ry interperse  
With many a sentence sharp and terse,  
To make the base subverter feel;  
Tho' hard his heart as flint, or steel."  
Next J——s vows, " Thy patriotism  
Too plainly argues Heathenism;

For



For he, whose bosom does not glow  
 With equal love for friend, and foe;  
 And like good-will for France and Spain,  
 As for Old England entertain,  
 Wants charity, in true and best sense,  
 Of Christian virtues the quintessence."

*Best sense and quintessence*, by way of rhyme! Surely this is the very *quintessence* of miserable doggerel. We may venture, therefore, without the spirit of *prophecy* to foretell that the author of this piece, will never be a *poet*.

*Panegyric: an Essay on some of the worthiest Characters in the Kingdom.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Fielding and Walker.

This piece is humbly styled an *Essay*: whether it will prove a successful one or not, the reader may judge from the following short quotation.

' Oh N——! decreed by kindly fate  
 To prop our tott'ring pile of state,  
 While wisdom guides our sovereign's will  
 To add to thine a G——'s skill,  
 And that the work may be compleat,  
 Make S—— ruler of the fleet;  
 What bard advent'rous shall essay  
 Your triple virtues to display?  
 While one pervades at ev'ry glance  
 The mazy lab'rins of finance,  
 His colleague as conspicuous shews,  
 In plans concerted 'gainst our foes;  
 And last, not least, our navy lord  
 In due submission holds the—board.  
 Oh that it lay within my pow'r  
 On virtues such as thine to show'r  
 Rewards which ev'ry British heart  
 Must, knowing, own their just desert;'

Please to observe, reader, that the last word should be spelt *desart*, if you desire to make a rhyme of it.

*The Patriotic Soul; a poetical Epistle to Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F. R. S. on his Disquisitions relating to Matter and Spirit.*  
 By A. Bicknell. 4to. 1s. 6d. Bowden.

The full exertion of poetical talents, and those of the highest kind, is indispensibly necessary towards the illustration of philosophical subjects, which are of so dry and abstruse a nature as to require the greatest wit and humour to render them entertaining; or if seriously treated, all the power of numbers to recommend them to general attention. Scarce any of our poets, since the days of Prior and Pope, have made any figure in this peculiar province. We are not, therefore, surprised to find Mr. Bicknell failing in his attempt to divert us, by exposing to ridicule the obscure and unintelligible system (if so it may be called) of the learned Dr. Priestley, for, as our bard properly, if not very poetically, observes,

' Indeed, no truths can we assure,  
Upon a subject so obscure,  
Plac'd in whatever view you please,  
Appear improbabilities.'

If it really be so, why will Mr. Bicknell give himself and his readers so much unnecessary trouble? Unnecessary, we fear, all his pains will be; for what reader of plain and common understanding can receive any idea of Dr. Priestley's philosophy from the following lines;

' So when we view a castle-wall,  
Rent by a pond'rous cannon-ball,  
We must conclude from your new rules,  
(Our reas'ning fathers being fools),  
That 'tis not solid brick or stone  
Which solid iron has o'erthrown,  
But that a Nothing did attract,  
And had not strength to counteract,  
By its repulsive force, the thing,  
(The Thing, your pardon, Sir, the Nothing)  
Which its attractive power drew  
So forcibly, that it o'erthrew  
Both principles; and there they lie,  
Attraction with repulsion by.'

Surely a man might read a thousand such lines without becoming a whit wiser or better; and if so, what do they tend to? *Cui bono?* To those, however, who are fond of metaphysical disquisitions, and wish to know what may be advanced for or against Dr. Priestley, the *Patrid Soul* (though why it is so called we cannot for our souls understand) may afford some amusement. It is but justice to Mr. Bicknell to observe, that his verses are, in general, easy and harmonious; we should expect, therefore, to find him a very agreeable writer on a more pleasing and intelligible subject.

*An Epistle from Joseph Surface, Esq. to Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Esq. of Great Queen-street, Chairman of the Sub-Committee for Westminster. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsly.*

The whole wit of this piece (if any wit there be in it) lies in the title page, which old *Jacob Tonson* used to say, in every performance was half the battle. Mr. *Surface*, we need not inform our readers, is a principal character in *The School for Scandal*, written by R. B. *Sheridan*. This fictitious personage addresses the real identical author, and reproaches him in this poem for quitting the Muses in search of politics, and acting as president of the sub-committee of Westminster, instead of manager of Drury-Lane theatre. There is neither wit, humour, nor poetry, in this performance, which ends (and glad we were to get to the end) in this manner:

' Queen-street, I prophecy, before September,  
Names Richard Brinsley Sheridan her member--'

Ry

By her instructed, thou shalt be the maker  
 Of patriot motions that concern Long-acre;  
 In thy new house with rapture shalt be heard,  
 Lord George the second, or, at most, the third.  
 Till, last, the king exalt thy horn, and dub  
 Our sub-committee chairman viscount Sub.'

If any private gentleman is desirous of farther communication with Mr. Joseph Surface, we refer him to the poem itself, price only eighteen-pence.

*Rhyme and Reason; or a fresh Stating of the Arguments against an Opening through the Wall of Queen's-Square, Westminster.*  
 4to. 1s. 6d. Faulder.

As the wit and humour of this piece, as well as the arguments pro and con, are merely *local*, and calculated entirely for the meridian of Queen-Square and its environs, we are not adequate judges of its merit. It is called, with what propriety we know not, *Rhyme and Reason*. To the former, which is all we are concerned in, we have no objection, as it seems to be at least as good as the subject deserves; and with regard to the latter, we leave it, *as in duty bound*, to the contending parties.

*Elegiac Epistles on the Calamities of Love and War.* 8vo. 2s. Pridden.

These are letters supposed to have passed between a sailor and his wife, who, for what reason we know not, choose to call themselves by the pretty poetical names of Abelard and Eloisa. The lady writes the first letter, wherein are some plaintive lines lamenting his cruel absence, &c. And the husband in return sends her three or four, describing the melancholy scenes he has been engaged in, the battle between our ships and the Squadron of Paul Jones, with other particulars, which, however interesting to the persons immediately concerned in these matters, make but an indifferent figure in rhyme, as the reader will see by the following verses.

'All hands to quarters!'—now was heard around;  
 'All hands to quarters!'—from the decks rebound;  
 The ready crew the summons throng to obey,  
 While fate to slaughter dooms the tragic day!  
 To arrange the cannon, and adjust them so,  
 As might be likeliest to annoy the foe,  
 Each in his hand a mazy crow sustains,  
 And o'er the scene a dread confusion reigns!

The versification throughout these Epistles is just good enough to claim the attention, and perhaps applause, of a small circle of the author's friends, but has by no means sufficient poetical merit to recommend it to public approbation.

*Hobby-Horses. Read at Bath-Easton.* 4to. 1s. Doddsley.

This little *poney*, who, it seems, had the good fortune to *win* the plate at Bath-Easton, seems to have, as the dealers say, some good points about him, though we do not admire all his *paces*.  
 He

He *ambles* prettily enough in the following lines, where speaking of the different tastes of men with regard to beauty, he observes, that

' Did all assert the lily's softer dye,  
The jetty ringlet, and dark ebony eye,  
Beauty had glow'd in artificial shade,  
Nor love immortaliz'd the nut-brown maid.'

And a little after remarks, that

' Nature, more provident, foresaw that hate,  
Not love, must on one common love await;  
Therefore with fancy's beam our passions drew,  
Featur'd with life and varied in their hue.  
Hence beauty sparkles in a shade of jet,  
Blooms thro' the fair, or blazes in brunette.'

He then *gallops* on with tolerable ease over the field of fancy for a page or two, when he begins to stumble in very indifferent rhyme, such as

' When does your wife lie in? the monarch said;  
When't please your majesty, the peer reply'd.'

Talking of patriots, he says,

' Such Chatham was---his patriotic soul,  
Like heaven's bright orb, *shone* glory thro' the whole.'

Here our poetical tit seems to be a little off his speed; but as he observes a little farther on,

' Some writers *be* of an amphibious race.'

In describing himself, he says,

' A poet's hobby-horse is pen and ink;  
This rides for glory, that for meat and drink.  
Oft in this ring they spur their steeds to death,  
And the best steed but proves the better breath.  
This clears whole fields of paper, he's so fleet;  
This scarce has wind to clear one octave sheet.'

*O HAVE* sheet for a sheet in *OHAVE* is surely rather a quaint expression.

As we advance in this poem the lines, in our opinion, grow more languid. Our Pegasus, who set out pretty briskly, seems to tire, and at the end of the journey,

' Peccat ad extremum ridendus et tibia pulsat.'

*The Fast-Day; a Lambeth Eclogue. 4to. 1s. d. Bew.*

This is a malevolent personal attack on the character of a most amiable woman, the Hon. Mrs. C——s, lady of the present a——p. of C——y, whom this author censures in a severe and illiberal manner, for her love of cards, and admitting them into the palace of L——th. The poet describes his heroine, whom he calls Piscopetta, as conversing with her maid Comb-brush, and proposing a game at cribbage on the last fast-day, to which Comb-brush replies,

' Madam,

'Madam, you surely jest—would not his grace,  
 If he should hear it, turn me from my place!  
 Besides, (don't think I mean to be uncivil)  
 I have some little terrors of the devil,  
 I had, your worship, a sad dream last night,  
 That made my hair like bristles with a fright.  
 Beside my bed, methought, I saw him stand,  
 Horns on his head, a pitchfork in his hand;  
 Two balls of fire, instead of eyes, appear'd,  
 And two bright fork'y flames compos'd his beard:  
 Behind a monstrous length of tail he bore,  
 Which, curl'd around him, made a tail before:  
 Wide grinn'd his horrid jaws; and, as he spoke,  
 All steep'd in clammy sweatings I awoke.'

The rest of the lines in this poem are of a piece with these: our readers will consequently perceive that luckily for Mrs. C—— she can have nothing to fear from the suggestions of an enemy who will never be attended to, or a poem that will never be read.

*Sir Ebrius, a Tale for Bachelors.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Doddsley.

This little poem, price eighteen-pence, reminds us of what Shakespeare says of human life,

'It is a tale  
 Told by an ideot, full of sound and noise,  
 Signifying nothing.'

The author has apparently endeavoured to imitate Dryden, but he is no more like Dryden (as Hamlet says)

'Than I to Hercules,'

the story being flat and insipid, and the versification very indifferent; even the rhymes are incorrect and illegitimate, as in the following lines:

'Though with his homely fare the husband *cloy'd*,  
 He dares as well be damn'd as stir *abroad*.'

'———Sure my poem says not *so*,  
 It durst not such a latitude *allow*.'

'He yawn'd mechanically for a *dram*,  
 (Holland's or Nantz) to stop his stomach's *qualm*.'

'— John had not brought nor spell nor magic *back*,  
 No amulet to wear about his *neck*.'

'How very poor, an abject thing, now lay  
 This once proud master of the revlry.'

Here we have *cloy'd* and *abroad*, *so* and *allow*, *dram* and *qualm*, *back* and *neck*, by way of similar sounds. This, as the clown says in *As You Like It*, is the *very false gallop of verses*; and may well indeed be called so, as they by no means seem to set their horses well together.

Sir Ebrius is, as our readers will easily conceive by what we have quoted from it, a performance which does very little honour to its author.

DRA-

## D R A M A T I C.

*The Artifice; a Comic Opera. In Two Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. By William Augustus Miles. 1s. Cadell.*

Some of the songs in this piece, we hear, are well set to music. Concerning its dramatic merit, as it is still in possession of the stage, we shall say nothing more than that there seems to be a better attempt at character in it than we have met with in any of the farces lately exhibited.

## D I V I N I T Y.

*A Scriptural Illustration of the Book of Revelation. By John Johnson. 8vo. 5s. sewed. Law.*

It is difficult to say, for whom the author intended this performance. He tells us, that he has not written it for the indolent and insensible, nor for the empty and vain, nor for the wise and learned, nor for the gay and polite, nor for the modish formalists, nor for those who are zealous for the traditions of famous men, nor for the devout zealots for religion.—For whom then? We hope not for those notorious consumers of books, the cheese-mongers, pastry-cooks, and trunk-makers. If piety and a good design can preserve it, it may repose on the same shelf with other laborious comments on the Apocalypse.

*A Travel from Egypt towards the Land of Canaan; where the Author, in his Way, met with a peculiar People: among which he met with many remarkable Occurrences, and many Difficulties, set forth in Parables. Addressed to the People called Quakers and the sincere in general. By J. C. Schnebbelie. 8vo. 2s. Crowder.*

The following apology, which the author makes for his defects, may give the reader some notion of what he is to expect in these parables.

‘If these lines should fall into the hands of some more learned and wiser pen, I beg the candid reader will consider them as not learned or classical, and the author as a foreigner, and also a stranger to this language, and only done in simplicity; believing, to have a right, if he had but one talent, to lay it out on usury, to gain another, as well as he which had received five; by which, he hopes to be acceptable to him, which lendeth the talents.’

These parables, as the author very justly remarks, are ‘done in simplicity.’

*A Sermon preached in the Church of St. Andrew's, Dublin, Feb. 6, 1780, in Aid of a charitable Fund for the Support of twelve Boys and eight Girls. By Thomas Campbell, LL.D. 4to.*

An ingenious illustration of these words: ‘Be ye perfect, even as your Father, which is in heaven is perfect.’ Matt. v. 48,

The

The author observes, that there is a certain standard allotted to each class of created beings; that the nearer any individual approaches to this standard, the more perfect it is in its kind; that, if it reaches this, it may be called perfect; that man by relative perfection, becomes perfect man, as his Maker, by absolute perfection, is perfect God.

‘It was, says he, to improve, refine and exalt our relatively imperfect nature, that our Saviour inculcates, so strongly, the precept of universal love: which he recommends as God-like because universal, and not restrained to nation, to sect, or to party; but like the divine goodness, “which maketh the sun to rise upon the just and the unjust” it extendeth to all, and to all alike, to friends, to strangers, and even to enemies.

‘And from the very place assigned to my text, in his discourse, it is evident, that the virtue, he had last mentioned, was that on which he bestowed the superlative character of perfection. But if there could be any doubt of this matter, from the context, it would be removed by the parallel passage of St. Luke, where instead of *perfect*, we find the word *merciful*. As if mercy and perfection were different names for the same virtue of love.’

He proceeds to shew, that as charity is the perfection of Christianity, so alms-giving is the perfection of charity. This, says he, was the opinion of the Author of our religion, as may be learned from the answer which he gave to the ruler, who consulted him concerning the terms of his salvation: ‘If thou wilt be *perfect*, go and sell that thou hast and give to the poor, and then thou shalt have treasure in heaven.’

*A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of Richmond, in Surrey, Feb. 4, 1780, being the Day appointed for a general Fast. By Thomas Wakefield, A. B. 4to. 1s. Davenport.*

A plain, useful discourse, adapted to a popular congregation, on these words of Moses: “Keep therefore the words of this covenant, and do them, that ye may prosper in all that ye do.” Deut. xxix. 9.

## CONTROVERSIAL.

*Remarks on Mr. Hume's Dialogues, concerning Natural Religion. By T. Hayter, A. M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.*

The design of these Remarks is to controvert Philo's disavowal of God's moral attributes, and his proscription of popular religion.

1. Philo's objection to the existence of benevolence in the Divine Nature is grounded principally on the miseries of human life, of which he exhibits a melancholy picture. In opposition to this argument Mr. Hayter endeavours to shew, that, in regard to the whole creation, there is a far greater measure of happiness than of misery.

2. Philo.

2. Philo asserts, that all history abounds with accounts of the pernicious consequences of religion on public affairs; he declares, that no periods of time can be happier than those in which religion was never heard of or regarded; he depreciates the efficacy of future rewards and punishments; he accuses religion of encouraging vice, and laments that the prospects of a future state, exhibited by popular religions, wear universally a dismal inauspicious appearance.—To these, and several other similar objections, our ingenious author returns such answers as amply vindicate the honour of Christianity. He then concludes with the following remark:

‘The picture, or rather caricature, of religion, exhibited by Philo in the dialogues, may perhaps not unhappily be contrasted with a short etching of irreligion, which appears in Mr. Hume’s *Dissertation on the Natural History of Religion*. Sect. 16, p. 116. “Look out (cries the great philosopher) for a people entirely devoid of religion: If you find them at all, be assured that they are but few degrees removed from brutes.” To what worse state, great and good God, can the strictest profession of thy holy religion reduce us!’

This is a fair stroke, or what the logicians call “argumentum ad hominem,” which the advocates of Mr. Hume cannot possibly evade.

*A Letter to the Rev. Dr. Richard Watson, King’s Professor of Divinity in the University of Cambridge.* 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

A liberal and dispassionate address, written, or pretended to be written, by one of Dr. Watson’s old friends, who professes the greatest respect for his integrity and extensive abilities, notwithstanding he differs from him in his political creed.

The author’s general design is to bring rational people back to the admiration of that constitution, which, with all its errors and corruptions, is still the noblest in the world; to warn them against the seduction of overheated zealots in the cause of liberty; to shew them, that charges of bribery, venality, and corruption, have been the cant of opposition in all countries and all ages; to teach them, that, when opposition has obtained its own ends, the people will be forgotten, as much as they have been by all former oppositions; and to set forth the danger every free people runs in subverting fundamentals, on account of evils, which, though visible, are not destructive.

He observes, that the original compact, and a state of nature, are like the postulata in mathematics, which are always taken for granted, but which in reality are either not worth proof, or incapable of it; and that the deductions from these postulata will furnish arguments for the subversion of every civil government existing.—With respect to his friend in particular, he says: ‘You extract from reading and philosophy the most exalted and generous notions of liberty and independence, but apply your deductions to countenance the narrow and paucy interests of a particular party.’

MEDICAL.



## M E D I C A L.

*Foreign Medical Review.* Vol. I. Part. II. 8vo: 2s. 6d.  
Pridden.

The first number of this work was published about a twelve-month ago, and the second only lately. For what reason the latter has been so long delayed, the author does not inform us; but he expresses a firm resolution of publishing, for the future, a number every three months. The design of this work is to give an account of all new books published on the continent of Europe; relative to natural history, botany, materia medica, chemistry, anatomy, surgery, midwifery, and the practice of physic. All new and useful discoveries, in any of the above sciences, are likewise particularly to be noticed; and in each number will be given an account of all medical intelligence received from abroad; the state of the different universities, and the last prize questions proposed by the different academies; with a complete catalogue of all new publications.

Such is the plan announced by the author in the first number of the work; and which he has followed both in that and the second. The former contained an account of the Pharmacopœia Suecica, Collin de Usu Florum & Radicis Arnicae, Tode vom Tripper on the Gonorrhœa, Leber's Praelectiones Anatomicae, Stein's theoretical Introduction to Midwifery, Stein's practical Introduction to Midwifery, Gruner's Semiotice, Haller's Bibliotheca Chirurgica, Haller's Bibliotheca Medicinæ practicae, Theden on the new-invented Catheters of the Resina Elastica. These articles are succeeded by medico-chirurgical news, containing an account of deaths, promotions, learned societies, prize-questions, university news, new inventions, and a catalogue of books.

The second number comprises an account of Murray's *Materia Medica*, Mertens's Observations on Putrid Fevers, Tralles on the Use of Blisters, Forster on Cantharides, Brambilla on the Phlegmon, Camper's Reflexions relative to Midwifery, Treatment of Infants, &c. Bergman's Essays on Chemistry and Natural Philosophy, Haller's Library of the Practice of Physic, vol. III. De Haen's posthumous Works, vol. I. Schofulan's Epitome of the Works of de Haen, Fauken's Observations on the puerperal Fever, with the various articles of medico-chirurgical news.

That a work conducted upon so extensive a plan must prove highly useful to all the lovers of natural knowledge, particularly to gentlemen of the faculty, no doubt can be entertained. We know that many valuable treatises published on the continent, especially in the German language, remain totally inaccessible to an English reader, for want of a translation. This great inconvenience, therefore, will be removed by the present work, of which it is but justice to say, that it is executed with ability and attention.

As

*An Address to the Public on a Subject of the utmost Importance to Health.* By J. Elliot, Apothecary. 8vo. 6d. Fielding and Walker.

Mr. Elliot, author of this Address, and who lately published some ingenious Observations on the Senses of Vision and Hearing \*, cautions the public against the danger of having recourse to empirics for the cure of a particular disorder, so frequent in the capital. Should those to whom the pamphlet is more immediately addressed, at the same time that they follow Mr. Elliot's prudential advice, also apply for his physical assistance, we are persuaded that they would experience the salutary effects, arising from a safe and a judicious treatment of the disease.

To the Address are subjoined a few cursory remarks on the heat of the blood, and the motions of animals and vegetables.

In the conclusion of the pamphlet we meet with a motto in Greek characters, of which we shall only observe, that it is a *word to the wise*.

*A Description of the Apparatus of arbitrarily heated and medicated Water Baths, &c.* By R. Dominiceti, M. D. 8vo. 1s. W. Nichol.

The apparatus here described has lately been erected in Pantheon Square, by Dr. Dominiceti, upon the same plan with that established at Chelsea by his father. To the description of the several baths, he has added an account of their nature and efficacy, with authenticated cases of cures, performed on persons of credit and reputation.

## M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

*Historical Remarks and Anecdotes on the Castle of the Bastille.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

The public is indebted for this pamphlet to Mr. Howard, the gentleman who has so much distinguished himself for his humanity in the visitation of prisons. It is translated from the French original, the sale of which having been prohibited in France on the severest penalties, it was not without the utmost difficulty that a copy could be procured. Mr. Howard justly concluded that it would be acceptable to his countrymen, not only as an object of curiosity, from the celebrated place it describes, but as affording a strong contrast between the horrors of despotic power, and the mild administration of laws in a free state. The pamphlet contains a perspicuous description of the Bastille, the mode of confinement, and the treatment of those unfortunate persons who are doomed to this horrible abode of misery and despair.

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\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xlviii. p. 423.

*The Intrigues of a Nabob; or Bengal the fittest Soil for the Growth of Lust, Injustice, and Dishonesty.* 8vo. No Publisher's Name.

A NA-bob or na-BOB (for the learned are divided about the placing of the accent) signifies, in the modern acceptation of the word, not a real nabob, but some worthy English gentleman who has amassed the fortune of one of these Indian monarchs, and who, in consequence of such exaltation, generally takes the liberty of acting in what manner he thinks proper, without a strict attention to the dictates of religion and morality. Of such a one, whose name it seems is B——, are in this pamphlet related the adventures, so far as they concern the relator and sufferer, Mr. Henry Frederick Thompson, who informs us how the said Mr. B—— seduced his (Mr. Thompson's) wife; and how he entered into an agreement with the said Mr. Thompson to allow him 300l. per annum in lieu of the said wife; how after all it proved that the wife of the said Mr. Thompson was no wife, but only a strumpet whom he had picked up at the round-house, carried with him to India, and called her his spouse; and how after all the nabob, alias Mr. B——, by his agent here, compounded with Mr. Thompson for 3000l. instead of 300l. per annum; and how after all poor Mr. Thompson was glad to get half the money, 1500l. and endeavour to make himself amends for the loss of all the rest by publishing his melancholy case to the world, together with the nabob's love-letters to the lady, copies of which make a part of this curious performance.

This Intrigue may, for aught we know, be very interesting as well as entertaining to those who have any personal knowledge of the parties concerned; but will afford, we fear, no great amusement to the public in general, especially as the story is told in very indifferent language, and a style by no means calculated to attract general attention; we cannot therefore recommend it to our readers as a volume either of entertainment or instruction.

*Free Thoughts on Rhetoric.* 8vo. 1s. Fielding and Walker.

We are informed, in the preface to this pamphlet, that these Thoughts were written at an early time of life by a learned and ingenious gentleman *now no more*, and that they are published by particular desire of a friend of the deceased. *De mortuis nil nisi bonum* may be a very humane, but is, in our opinion, rather a foolish determination. The friend of the deceased must therefore pardon us if we say that there is nothing, at least as far as we are able to judge, very striking, agreeable, or instructive in these Thoughts, which are most of them old, trite, and ill-expressed, without order or connection. The author tells us, by way of novelty, that,

‘In the human mind there are many passions, which differ in men of different constitutions; in some men, the strong ambition of power

power prevails; in others, of wealth; in a third sort, of grandeur; whilst men of different cast love ease, the Muses, the abstruse sciences, trade, politics, athletic exercises, diversions both hardy and effeminate, in action, &c. these several passions prevail in some, in some they unite, each in a small degree, in others more or less.

That 'the best mode of speaking is to unite argument with beauty and sublimity;' that 'men will hearken to reason, and be delighted with description and loftiness of thought;' and that 'the speaker must be animated to attract the attention of his audience.'

Surely there is nothing in this which we did not know before. He tells us afterwards, that 'Habit has some force, and climate also, for liberty, celestial maid! never yet took up her abode amidst the heat of China, or luxury of Persia. No! *She for the northern climate was sent.*' This is a strange style. In commenting on rhetoric, says he, the following method is observed; first, *is* painted the different sorts of eloquence; secondly, *is* examined their effects (*is* instead of *are*). Here the editor should at least have corrected the false grammar. Speaking of the sublime, he says 'it is in these strains that the inactive *Fu* (who are these?) must be *worried up*.'

'This (says he, speaking of experience) will form the pure spring from whence the stream of eloquence must flow, whether to glide along its limpid waters, through the pleasant mead; or form the beautiful meander, interspersed with all the dimpled whirlpools as they meet the stony isle, the precious workmanship of choicest art, or roll its gushing torrent with its roaring sound, hurling through its banks, and hurrying in its way the broken fragments of each weak opponent. This spring, thus richly fed, luxuriantly flowing, forms true eloquence; not the gaudy spouting on some sunshine holiday of the small fount or whimsical cascade.'

He informs us, that in a reply the peroration should be *clever*; and that a hint of Demosthenes is so broad in fact, though so narrow in appearance, that a less *clever* set than the men at Athens must have taken it.

The word *clever* is certainly in this place not defensible, neither would a very clever fellow have made use of it, any more than he would have said, as our author does, p. 32, that 'words carry with them conviction, and keep awakened the *stimuli* of action.'

Upon the whole, we cannot but think, with regard to this performance, that the friend of the deceased author would have done more honour to his memory by the suppression, than he can possibly do by the publication of it.

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*The Letter signed A. B. Oxoniensis is received; and the hints communicated will be attended to.*

T H E

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of *May*, 1780.

*Supplement to the Edition of Shakspeare's Plays published in 1778 by Samuel Johnson and George Steevens. In two Volumes. Containing additional Observations by several of the former Commentators; to which are subjoined the genuine Poems of the same Author, and seven Plays that have been ascribed to him; with Notes by the Editor and others. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Bathurst.*

**W**ITHIN the compass of literature are certain undertakings, which can never be well executed except by persons of fortune as well as learning, who are happy also in that degree of enthusiasm which is absolutely necessary to animate their respective pursuits. The publishers of Greek and Roman classics have many advantages which are not within the reach of annotators on ancient English writers. Settled languages, catalogues directing where manuscripts, and curious editions may be found, with the aid of many predecessors in the same track, all concur to facilitate their progress, and decorate their page; while the critics on Shakspeare, &c. are often under the necessity of discovering the mines whence their assistance is to be drawn; and on such occasions, are more frequently befriended by chance than by sagacity. Many of the books they wanted were to be found neither in libraries nor shops; or if fallen by chance into the hands of rapacious booksellers, were often collected at an enormous expence. Besides those disadvantages, the annotators on Shakspeare are never certain that they have met with every pamphlet, play, ballad, or treatise, to which their author was indebted. Most of those pieces being also of a barren and unentertaining nature, require in the perusal a diligence and patience that are hardly to be equalled in any other literary research. Many indeed are the dunghills which our present scholiasts must have turned over without discovering a single gem; and many a heap of chaff must they have winnowed for the sake of the very few grains of wheat that were buried under

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der it. Great, therefore, is the merit of gentlemen who employ their money, as well as their leisure, in the elucidation of our early poets; a task, for which, should they receive the usual rewards of the most popular writers, their patrons of the rubric post could afford them no acknowledgement in the smallest degree adequate to the sacrifice of their time and erudition.

To the former of those volumes is prefixed an advertisement, by Mr. Malone, the Editor; in which he makes the following apology for this supplement to the voluminous commentaries on Shakspeare.

Those who complain of the repeated impressions of this great poet, would do well to consider, whether the hopes, which were many years since entertained, of seeing a perfect edition of his works produced by the effort of a single person, were not rather sanguine than reasonable. By a diligent collation of all the old copies hitherto discovered, and the judicious restoration of ancient readings, the text of this author seems indeed now finally settled. The great abilities and unwearied researches of his last editor, it must likewise be acknowledged, have left little obscure or unexplained. But the field of illustration is so extensive, that some time may yet elapse before the dramas of Shakspeare shall appear in such a manner as to be incapable of improvement. If, though the most eminent literati of Europe for above two centuries were employed in revising and expounding the writers of Greece and Rome, many ancient editions of classic authors have yet within our own memory been much improved by modern industry, why should it create surprize, that a poet, whose works were originally printed with so little care, whose diction is uncommonly licentious, and whose dialogue, agreeably to the nature of dramattick composition, is often temporary and allusive, should still stand in need of critical assistance?—Till his whole library shall have been discovered, till the plots of all his dramas shall have been traced to their sources, till every allusion shall be pointed out, and every obscurity elucidated, somewhat will still remain to be done. The books of the age of queen Elizabeth are now difficult to be procured; and when procured, the aid that they afford to the commentator is not always to be obtained by a regular and systemattick course of reading. Hence this species of illustration must necessarily be the slow and gradual work of time; the result of various inquiries, instituted for different purposes.

The work begins with Supplemental Observations relative to the old theatres and actors; in which we meet with a variety of curious information, collected from numerous sources. We are afterwards presented with a copy of an original paper, which appears to have been hung in the playhouse in Shakspeare's time, containing a sketch of an entertainment hitherto undescribed. Other interesting particulars which occur in the work, are some anecdotes of Shakspeare, Ben Jonson, bishop

Corbet, &c. with the English origin of the story of The Merchant of Venice. For the gratification of our readers, we have extracted the following letter from Dr. Warburton, late bishop of Gloucester, to Mr. Concanen. It was found about the year 1750, by Dr. Gawin Knight, late librarian to the British Museum, in fitting up a house which he had taken in Crane Court, Fleet-street. The house had, for a long time before, been let in lodgings, and it is supposed that Concanen had lodged there.

“ Dear Sir,

“ having had no more regard for those papers which I spoke of and promis'd to Mr. Theobald, than just what they deserv'd I in vain sought for them thro' a number of loose papers that had the same kind of abortive birth. I used to make it one good part of my amusement in reading the English poets, those of them I mean whose vein flows regularly and constantly, as well as clearly, to trace them to their sources; and observe what oar, as well as what slime and gravel they brought down with them. Dryden I observe borrows for want of leisure, and Pope for want of genius: Milton out of pride, and Addison out of modesty. And now I speak of this latter, that you and Mr. Theobald may see of what kind those Idle collections are, and likewise to give you my notion of what we may safely pronounce an imitation, for it is not I presume the same train of ideas that follow in the same description of an Ancient and a modern, where nature when attended to, always supplies the same stores, which will authorize us to pronounce the latter an imitation, for the most judicious of all poets, Terence, has observed of his own science *Nihil est dictum, quod non sit dictum prius*: For these reasons I say I give myselfe the pleasure of setting down some imitations I observed in the Cato of Addison.

*Addison.* A day, an hour of virtuous liberty

Is worth a whole eternity in bondage. *Act 2. Sc. 1.*

*Tully.* Quod si immortalitas consequeretur presentis periculi fugam, tamen eo magis ea fugienda esse videretur, quo diuturnior esset servitus. *Philipp. Or. 10.*

*Addison.* Bid him disband his legions

Restore the commonwealth to liberty

Submit his actions to the public censure,

And stand the judgement of a Roman senate,

Bid him do this and Cato is his friend.

*Tully.* Pacem vult? arma deponat, roget, deprecetur. Numinem equiorem reperiet quam me.

*Philipp. 3.*

*Addison.* ——— But what is life?

'Tis not to stalk about and draw fresh air  
From time to time ———

'Tis to be free. When Liberty is gone,  
Life grows insipid and has lost its relish.

*Sc. 3.*

*Tully.* Non enim in spiritu vita est: sed ea nulla est omnino servienti. *Philipp. 10.*

*Addison.* Remember O my friends the laws the rights  
The gen'rous plan of power deliver'd down

Y 2

From

From age to age by your renowned forefathers.

O never let it perish in your hands. *AB 3. Sc. 3.*

*Tully.* —Hanc [libertatim scilicet] retinete, quæso, Quirites, quam vobis, tanquam hereditatem, majores nostri reliquerunt. *Philipp. 4<sup>a</sup>.*

*Addison.* The mistress of the world, the seat of empire,  
The nurse of Heroes the Delight of Gods.

*Tully.* Roma domus virtutis, imperii dignitatis, domicilium gloriæ, lux orbis terrarum. *de oratore.*

“The first half of the 5 Sc. 3 Act. is nothing but a transcript from the 9 book of Lucan between the 300 and the 700 line. You see by this specimen the exactness of Mr. Addison’s judgment who wanting sentiments worthy the Roman Cato sought for them in Tully and Lucan. When he would give his subject those terrible graces which Dion. Hallicar: complains he could find no where but in Homer, he takes the assistance of our Shakspeare, who in his *Julius Cæsar* has painted the conspirators with a pomp and terour that perfectly astonishes. hear our British Homer.

Between the acting of a dreadful thing  
And the first motion, all the Int’rim is  
*Like a phantasma or a hideous dream,*  
The Genius and the mortal Instruments  
Are then in council, and the state of Man  
like to a little Kingdom, suffers then  
The nature of an insurrection.

Mr. Addison has thus imitated it:

O think what anxious moments pass between  
The birth of plots, and their last fatal periods  
O’tis a dreadful interval of time,  
Filled up with horror all, and big with death.

I have two things to observe on this imitation. 1. the decorum this exact Mr. of propriety has observed. In the Conspiracy of Shakspeare’s description, the fortunes of Cæsar and the roman Empire were concerned. And the magnificent circumstances of

“The genius and the mortal instruments

“Are then in council.

is exactly proportioned to the dignity of the subject. But this would have been too great an apparatus to the desertion of Syphax and the rape of Sempronius, and therefore Mr. Addison omits it. II, The other thing more worth our notice is, that Mr. A. was so greatly moved and affected with the pomp of Shakspeare’s description, that instead of copying his author’s sentiments, he has before he was aware given us only the marks of his own impressions on the reading him. For,

“O’tis a dreadful interval of time

“Filled up with horror all, and big with death.

are but the affections raised by such lively images as these

“——all the Int’rim is

“Like a phantasma or a hideous dream.

&c,

“The state of man—like to a little kingdom suffers then

“The nature of an insurrection.

Again



Again when Mr. Addison would paint the softer passions he has recourse to Lee who certainly had a peculiar genius that way. thus his Juba

" True she is fair. O how divinely fair!  
coldly imitates Lee in his Alex:

" Then he wou'd talk: Good Gods how he wou'd talk!

I pronounce the more boldly of this, because Mr. A. in his 39 Spec. expresses his admiration of it. My paper fails me, or I should now offer to Mr. Theobald an objection agt. Shakspeare's acquaintance with the ancients. As it appears to me of great weight, and as it is necessary he shou'd be prepared to obviate all that occur on that head. But some other opportunity will present itself. You may now, Sr, justly complain of my ill manners in deferring till now, what shou'd have been first of all acknowledged due to you. which is my thanks for all your favours when in town, particularly for introducing me to the knowledge of those worthy and ingenious Gentlemen that made up our last night's conversation. I am, Sir, with all esteem your most obliged friend and humble servant.

Newarke Jan. 2. 1726.

W. Warburton.

[The superscription is thus]

For

Mr. M. Concanen at  
Mr. Woodward's at the  
half moon-in fleetstreet.  
London.'

Among the curious pieces collected in these volumes, is an extract from a book entitled *Westward for Smells*, to which Shakspeare seems to have been indebted for part of the fable of Cymbeline. We also meet with the ancient poem entitled *Romeus and Juliet*, on which one of Shakspeare's most celebrated tragedies was formed; besides various extracts from the 'Historie of Hamblet,' bl. let. on which the tragedy of Hamblet was constructed; and an answer by Mr. Tyrwhitt to Dr. Warburton's account of the origin of romances. This answer contains many judicious remarks on Dr. Warburton's opinion respecting the subject in question. After those articles we meet with various extracts from the warrant-book of the Lord Chamberlain in the time of Charles I. illustrating the history of the theatres and actors. These are succeeded by Mr. Dryden's contract to produce three plays every year, a fact that has often been mentioned, but was never till now ascertained. The following is a copy of what relates to this transaction.

' Whereas upon Mr. Dryden's binding himself to write three playes a yeere, hee the said Mr. Dryden was admitted and continued as a sharer in the king's playhouse for diverse years, and received for his *share* and a *quarter* three or four hundred pounds, communibus annis; but though he received the moneys, we received not the playes, not one in a yeare. After which, the.

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house

house being burnt, the company in building another contracted great debts, so that the shares fell much short of what they were formerly. Thereupon Mr. Dryden complaining to the company of his want of profit, the company was so kind to him that they not only did not presse him for the playes which he so engaged to write for them, and for which he was paid beforehand, but they did also at his earnest request give him a third day for his last new play called *All for Love*; and at the receipt of the money of the said third day, he acknowledged it as a gift, and a particular kindnesse of the company. Yet notwithstanding this kind proceeding, Mr. Dryden has now jointly with Mr. Lee (who was in pension with us to the last day of our playing, and shall continue,) written a play called *Oedipus*, and given it to the Duke's company, contrary to his said agreement, his promise, and all gratitude, to the great prejudice and almost undoing of the company, they being the only poets remaining to us. Mr. Crowne, being under the like agreement with the duke's house, writt a play called *The Destruction of Jerusalem*, and being forced by their refusall of it, to bring it to us, the said company compelled us after the studying of it, and a vast expence in scenes and cloathes, to buy off their clayme, by paying all the pension he had received from them, amounting to one hundred and twelve pounds paid by the king's company, besides neere forty pounds he the said Mr. Crowne paid out of his owne pocket.

These things considered, if, notwithstanding Mr. Dryden's said agreement, promise, and moneys freely given him for his said last new play. and the many titles we have to his writings, this play be judged away from us, we must submit.

(Signed)

Charles Killigrew.

Charles Hart.

Rich. Burt,

Cardett Goodman.

Mic. Mohun.<sup>s</sup>

The next articles in the collection are the poem of Venus and Adonis, and the Rape of Lucrece, now first collated with the most ancient editions hitherto discovered. Mr. Malone observes, that 'though near a century and a half has elapsed since the death of Shakspeare, it is surprising that none of his editors should have attempted to separate his genuine poetical compositions from the spurious performances with which they have been so long intermixed, or taken the trouble to compare them with the earliest editions. Soon after the poet's death, a very incorrect impression of his poems appeared, which in every subsequent edition has been implicitly followed. They are now all faithfully printed from the original copies, except his Venus and Adonis, of which, after great enquiry, the editor has not been able to procure the first impression. By the kindness however of the reverend Mr. Farmer,

mer, he has been furnished with a copy of that poem published in 1600, which has been faithfully collated for the present work.\* This edition, Mr. Malone observes, seems to have escaped the researches of all our typographical antiquaries, not being mentioned in any catalogue.

Many passages in those poems being obscure, they have been illustrated with notes, in which all such parallel expressions as have been discovered in our author's dramatic performances are quoted, as furnishing a strong proof of their authenticity.

In respect to the greater part of the plays that compose the second of these volumes, the editor does not offer them to the public as the compositions of Shakspeare, being convinced that of the *majority* of them not a single line was written by our great poet. 'What connection then, it may be asked, says the editor, have they with the works of our great poet, or why are they again reprinted?' To this question he makes the following reply.

'The reader will be pleased to observe, that the present publication assumes only the humble title of a Supplement to the last excellent edition of our author's plays; and under this description these imputed performances may perhaps not improperly be arranged. Though to the editor some of these dramas do not appear to be genuine, other persons may entertain different sentiments concerning them. It is now above a century since they were all published together as his compositions; and four of them had been separately printed with his name in his lifetime. In a period of more than a hundred and fifty years various opinions have been entertained about them; yet never has our author's title to these contested pieces been fairly and fully investigated. Notwithstanding the doubts that have been raised concerning them, (doubts which indeed the circumstances already mentioned were sufficient to create,) they have remained in the same state in which they originally appeared; abounding, like almost all the dramatic productions of that age, with the grossest corruptions; with which, be it remembered, the pages of our author also would still have been disfigured, if they had not passed through the ordeal of a critical examination by a numerous band of learned editors and commentators. Deterred by the uncouth form in which these plays appeared, few have taken the trouble to read them; and the question concerning their authenticity has remained in its original obscurity.

'Hence it was thought that it would not be wholly without use or entertainment to trace the history of these dramas as far as at this distance of time it can be traced; to collect all the internal and external evidence that might serve to point out the probable authors of them; to ascertain as nearly as possible the era when each of them was produced; to collate them with the original copies; to attempt to free them from the numerous corruptions with which they abound; and to present them to

the publick in a more *questionable shape* than that in which they have hitherto been exhibited. The authoritative decision of criticks, on a point so long agitated, will not satisfy the curious and intelligent reader of Shakspeare. He will wish to see with his own eyes, and to decide by the power of his own understanding. To such persons these performances, in their present form, will, it is presumed, not be unacceptable. Indeed, considering them merely as productions of writers contemporary with our author, they may be perused with advantage; since, like most of the dramatick compositions of that time, they may serve to explain his phraseology, and illustrate his allusions; for which purpose they have perhaps been examined less attentively than any other of the dramas of that age, having been hitherto rejected out of the modern collections of old English plays, not, as it should seem, from their want of merit, but because they were considered as in some sort belonging to Shakspeare. They have met with the fate of other spurious productions, and have been neglected by all parties. They were originally disowned by their natural parents; and the trustees of the literary estate of their imputed father have treated them as supposititious offspring, to whom they were not bound to pay any regard.

Under this general description of these contested pieces, it is not wished that the play of *Pericles*, and the short interlude entitled *A Yorkshire Tragedy*, should be included. The latter, in some places, appears to have much of our author's manner; and, for the reasons assigned by Mr. Steevens in his ingenious remarks on that piece, it may well be doubted whether it was not a hasty production of a few days, about which, as it was to be exhibited in conjunction with three other short dramas, composed perhaps by writers of no great eminence, he gave himself little trouble. With respect to the tragedy of *Pericles*, I fear I have already trespassed too much on the reader's patience in the notes on that play, and the observations annexed at the end of it; and will therefore only add, I am so thoroughly convinced that, if not the whole, at least the greater part of that drama was written by our author, that I hope it will be admitted into some future edition of his works, in the room of *Titus Andronicus*, of which I do not believe a single line to have been the composition of Shakspeare.

The editor expresses his warmest acknowledgements to the dean of Carlisle, the reverend Dr. Farmer, the reverend Mr. Henley, Mr. Tyrwhitt, Mr. Steevens, and the other gentlemen, whose valuable communications form so considerable a part of these volumes. He particularly acknowledges the friendship of Mr. Steevens, to whom he is indebted, not only for the numerous observations that are subscribed with that gentleman's name, but for many judicious hints respecting the conduct of the work. Among those who now first appear as scholiasts on Shakspeare, we find the name of the late learned Sir William Blackstone, who frequently bestowed his vacant hours on the

perusal of the great English poet. His notes, we are told, in conformity to his own desire, have no other distinction than the final letter of his name.

Having thus given a general account of these supplemental volumes, we shall, in our next Review, exhibit some of the excellent annotations with which they abound.

*Memoirs of the Life of David Garrick, Esq. interspersed with Characters and Anecdotes of his theatrical Contemporaries. The whole forming a History of the Stage, which includes a Period of thirty-six Years. By Thomas Davies. 8vo. 8s. Davies.*

THESE volumes, as we are informed in the title-page, were written, and are printed for and sold by Mr. Thomas Davies, at his shop in Great Russell-street, Covent Garden. There was a time when bookfellers were considered but as \* midwives to the Muses, and only employed in the useful labour of bringing into the world the productions of others: in this our age they are become teeming matrons, and frequently present us with brats of their own. We sincerely congratulate our friend Davies on the birth of this his last bantling, which seems to be a fine hearty child, and if we may judge from appearances, very likely to live. The lives of kings, admirals, generals, statesmen, and philosophers may probably be more useful and instructive than the life of David Garrick, but we much doubt whether any of them can be half so entertaining, more particularly at this period of time, when the various excellencies of that inimitable actor are so fresh in the memories of all who have ever seen or heard him. The English stage, of which the volumes now before us form a very agreeable and complete history, is, to say the truth, no uninteresting or unimportant subject, and may be considered as a large and mighty empire, which shone in its full and meridian lustre during the reign of king Garrick, one of the greatest princes that ever sat on the throne of those realms, which since the death of their great Alfred have been rapidly declining, and seem indeed nearly approaching towards their final dissolution. The state of this kingdom, the various revolutions, and events that have happened, and all the distinguished characters that have figured in it from time to time, for near forty years, are faithfully recorded, and accurately described by our able and diverting historian. Though the fore-ground of the picture is occupied by the principal figure, the other parts of the piece are not badly filled by a groupe of inferior personages, whose

\* Jacob Tonson, in the celebrated Latin epitaph on him, is styled *Musarum Obstetrix*,

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portraits are executed with grace and fidelity. Besides a Garrick at full length, we find some miniature representations of Quin, Mossop, Barry, Sheridan, &c. which are well characterised, the whole forming a picturesque and agreeable assemblage that strikes the eye, and gratifies the curiosity of the spectator.

As few of our readers are perhaps old enough to remember Mr. Garrick's first appearance on the stage, we shall select, for their amusement, Mr. Davies's account of it, as related in the fifth chapter of the first volume.

“ Mr. Garrick took all the necessary steps and precautions previous to his appearance on a London stage, to ensure his success when he should come forth a candidate for fame. He had performed a noviciate at Ipswich; and even before his going to that place, he had studied, with great assiduity, a variety of parts in the different walks of acting. The Clown, the Fop, the Fine Gentleman, the Man of Humour, the Sot, the Valet, the Lover, the Hero, nay, the Harlequin, had all been critically explored, and often rehearsed and practised by him in private. After long reflection and much serious weighing of consequences, he fixed upon Richard the Third for his first part in London. He had often declared he would never chuse a character which was not suitable to his person; for, said he, if I should come forth in a hero, or any part which is generally acted by a tall fellow, I shall not be offered a larger salary than forty shillings per week. In this he glanced at the folly of those managers who used to measure an actor's merit by his size.

“ He could not possibly give a stronger proof of sound judgment, than in fixing his choice on Richard. The play has always been popular, on account of its comprehending such variety of historical and domestic facts, with such affecting scenes of royal misery and distress. Richard was well adapted to his figure; the situations in which he is placed are diversified by a succession of passion, and dignified by variety and splendor of action. A skilful actor cannot wish for a fairer field on which to display his abilities.

“ On the 19th of October, 1741, David Garrick acted Richard the Third, for the first time, at the play-house in Goodman's-fields. So many idle persons, under the title of gentlemen acting for their diversion, had exposed their incapacity at that theatre, and had so often disappointed the audiences, that no very large company was brought together to see the new performer. However, several of his own acquaintance, many of them persons of good judgment, were assembled at the usual hour; though we may well believe that the greatest part of the audience were stimulated rather by curiosity to see the event, than invited by any hopes of rational entertainment.

“ An actor, who, in the first display of his talents, undertakes a principal character, has generally, amongst other difficulties, the prejudices of the audience to struggle with, in favour of an established performer. Here, indeed, they were not insurmountable. Cibber, who had been much admired in Richard, had left the stage. Quin was the popular player; but his manner of heaving up his words, and his laboured action, prevented his being a favourite Richard.

“ Mr. Garrick's easy and familiar, yet forcible style in speaking and acting, at first threw the critics into some hesitation concerning the

the novelty as well as propriety of his manner. They had been long accustomed to an elevation of the voice, with a sudden mechanical depression of its tones, calculated to excite admiration, and to intrap applause. To the just modulation of the words, and concurring expression of the features from the genuine workings of nature, they had been strangers, at least for some time. But after he had gone through a variety of scenes in which he gave evident proofs of consummate art, and perfect knowledge of character, their doubts were turned into surprize and astonishment; from which they relieved themselves by loud and reiterated applause. They were more especially charmed when the actor, after having thrown aside the hypocrite and politician, assumed the warrior and hero. When news was brought to Richard, that the duke of Buckingham was taken, Garrick's look and action, when he pronounced the words, '——— Off with his head!

So much for Buckingham! were so significant and important, from his visible enjoyment of the incident, that several loud shouts of approbation proclaimed the triumph of the actor and satisfaction of the audience. The death of Richard was accompanied with the loudest gratulations of applause.

'The same play was acted six or seven times successively. The receipts of the treasury, which I have before me, amounted, in seven nights, to no more than 216l. 7s. 6d. and this conveys a certain evidence, of what use the kindness, as well as judgment of the manager, is to the growing fame of an actor. Giffard to a good understanding joined a sense of honour, with great humanity. He saw Garrick's merit, and did all in his power to support it. Several other parts, among which were Aboan in *Oroonoko*, Chamont in the *Orphan*, Clodio in the *Pop's Fortune*, Bays in the *Rehearsal*, succeeded Richard; which favourite character was repeatedly called for, and acted, to crowded audiences.'

Most of our author's observations, in the course of this work, are founded on experience and good sense. To which we may venture to add, that his character of the actors, with his criticisms on the drama, are in general candid and judicious. His description of the bewitching Mrs. Margaret Woffington, is remarkably entertaining.

We were disappointed, however, in this part of the work, at not meeting with any account of the great actor's long and very intimate connection with this lady, or his narrow escape from a still closer tie, as it is well known that Mr. Garrick was on the very point of being married to her, a circumstance which in all probability would have involved him in scenes of perpetual anguish and inquietude; happily for him he was reserved for a much better fate, and a worthier partner. Whether our author thought that a circumstance of this nature might lessen the character of his hero, or that it was beneath the dignity of history to record it, we cannot pretend to determine: certain it is that this occurrence, together with many other anecdotes of a similar nature,

are by this grave and delicate biographer (perhaps prudently,) buried in oblivion. Mr. Davies seldom indeed ventures to suppose that Mr. Garrick could be in the wrong, or that he was liable to the weaknesses and infirmities of other men. Our author praises, rather perhaps too indiscriminately, every thing he did, said, or wrote; to this however the following short stricture may be considered as an objection.

‘ After Mr. Garrick had been abroad about a year and a half, fatiated with the amusements and pleasures of the continent, he turned his thoughts towards his native country. But before he would set out for Calais, he was resolved to put in practice his usual method of preventing censure, and blunting the edge of ridicule by anticipation. For this purpose, before he left Paris, he sat down very seriously to write a kind of satirical poem on himself; it was called the Sick Monkey, and the plan of it was, the talk or censure of other animals and reptiles on him and his travels, &c. This poem he sent from Paris to a friend, with a request that he would get it printed, to prepare his reception in London. There is almost in every thing which Mr. Garrick has written, some mark of genius, some display of humour, or some strokes of satire, some effusions of gay fancy, something which rewards the reader for the time spent in perusing it. But the Sick Monkey is amongst the few things which he wrote, which one would wish not to remember; I believe it scarce ever urged the public curiosity to read it, for it died almost still-born. In short, he missed his aim; for having no enemies to fight with, his shafts spent themselves idly in the air; or, if any persons were really hurt by them, they were careful to hide their wounds.’

Mr. Davies here tells us that ‘ the Sick Monkey is amongst the few things written by Mr. Garrick which one would wish not to remember.’ But surely, Mr. Davies, if one would not wish to remember, why should one wish to take any notice of it? The historian might as well have chosen to forget his writing this as his intrigue with Woffington.

After what we have here observed, our readers will not be surprised to find, at the conclusion of the second volume, the following character of Mr. Garrick, which, though in some parts rather overcharged, is well written.

Mr. Davies, after drawing a comparison between Mr. Garrick and several distinguished characters in the same line, such as Booth, Wilkes, Cibber, Moliere, Roman, and the Roman Roscius, all which comparisons might as well have been omitted, proceeds thus:

‘ He was not so shining; nor so exuberant in his manner of conversing, as his acquaintance Foote; but he was more agreeable, not only by his not overpowering the company with the superiority and brilliancy of his wit, but by his moderation in the use of those talents of which he was master. Foote was not satisfied without subduing his guests; Mr. Garrick confined his power of conversing to the art of making every man pleased with him. The conversation



tion of Foote resembled a great furnace, whose heat was so intense, that it obliged you to stand at a distance from it; that of Mr. Garrick may be compared to a fire, which diffuses its heat gently and comfortably all over the apartment. Foote's images of ridicule, and portraits of characters, were strong, vigorous, and resembling; but the hearer always felt a mixture of pain with his pleasure, lest he also should be made in his turn the subject of derision. Garrick excelled in telling apt and lively stories, and in drawing characters full of grotesque and burlesque images; his humour was pleasing, because it was not confined to particular satire, but diverted to general objects. Foote was a better scholar than Garrick, and could discuss a learned argument with classical authority: Garrick reasoned conclusively, but never ventured beyond his depth. Foote broke down every fence of morality, decency, and religion; and, to insure a laugh, would deal in scandal, obscenity, and profaneness: Garrick always paid a proper respect to himself and his company, by avoiding discourse which would give offence to piety and good manners. Foote raised admiration and loud mirth: Garrick gained constant approbation, and excited pleasing cheerfulness.

In these contrasted characters of Foote and Garrick, which seem to have been laboured by the author with more than ordinary care and attention, there is much truth and justice; though the former is treated perhaps with too much severity; but, as Shakespeare has long since observed, 'When two men ride upon a horse, one must go behind.'

Mr. Davies then goes on thus in the description of his hero,

'Amidst the various toils (says he) of a painful occupation, (painful, by the bye, we think is rather a bad epithet, as nothing, we believe, gave Mr. Garrick greater pleasure), he always found leisure to promote the happiness of others; in this he seemed to take uncommon delight. He was never weary of the divine office of doing good. He loved and encouraged the elegant arts of painting, sculpture, &c: he promoted the interests of its professors to the utmost of his ability. Such authors as applied to him were sure to have his interest. I shall only mention, on this head, the very large subscription he obtained for Mr. Lloyd. The man who never denied a favour to others, could not be refused when he became a solicitor himself.'

—Mr. Garrick, as an author, who wrote so much, and tried his skill in so many different species of writing, could not, perhaps, be of the first class in any one, though he has shewn proofs of genius in all. In epigram, ode, comedy, farce; in essays, in letters, prologues and epilogues.

Many of his epigrams have the spirit and turn of Martial. His ode on Mr. Pelham's death has more good sense than poetical fancy, though in that it is not deficient. His share in the *Clandestine Marriage* has not been ascertained, but the character of Lord Ogilby is generally allotted to him; and that, I believe, is allowed to be a master-piece. There was a difficulty which attended the drawing this character, from his having given in his *Lethe* another admirable character of a quality debauchee, Lord Chalkstone. In most of his dramatic pieces there is to be found real character, though not always equally well drawn; discrimination of humour, modest affectation, fashionable folly, or some irregular gaiety of the times.

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He was a perfect master of stage oeconomy; he rarely offends in the conduct of his plot, and the right management of his scenes; and to all his other dramatic excellencies he added decency and morality. His prologues and epilogues are an excellent supplement to the history of the times; they present to us certain domestic facts, to which our grave writers cannot stoop. These little pieces of poetry contain, if I may be allowed the expression, the farcical transactions of the age. The author catches at every new object of ridicule as it rises, and paints it with humour and truth. I will not say there is as much wit and poetry in these productions as in those of the same species, by Dryden; but I will venture to affirm, they contain much more information, and more mirth. Those who can trace his letters and essays in the news-papers, will find many just observations and acute criticisms on manners, customs, and characters. His vein of pleasantry is easy, flowing, and original. Many of his epitaphs are well written and characteristic.

— His manner of living was splendid, though somewhat below his income, as became a prudent man. By some he was said to be parsimonious, nay, avaricious: others gave out that he made too great and ostentatious a parade of magnificence, unbefitting the condition of a player. To attempt to please all the world, would be just as idle, as to despise its censures when founded upon truth or probability. Mr Garrick kept a plentiful table; he rejoiced to see his friends at his board; he kept horses and carriages, and had a number of servants, and equipage, such as became a man of his large fortune; but all his expences were regulated by the strictest oeconomy.

The abhorrence of profusion and waste he imbibed from his earliest years; and this moderation, during that tide of wealth which flowed in upon him constantly, enabled him to do many acts of kindness and charity. No man seemed more anxious to get money, and none more willing to bestow it generously. To those who knew the sums he constantly gave away, it would appear, that his sole end of acquiring wealth was for the benefit of others. I shall not talk of his more public charities and contributions; I mean such actions only as were less known to the world; his benevolence was not a sudden start of humour, as shewed itself in such acts of favour as proceed from sudden whim and caprice; his bounty resembled a large, noble, and flowing river,

That glorify'd the banks which bound it in.

It was a very honourable circumstance of his life, that in the very dawning of success, when he first tasted of Fortune's favours, and had acquired a very moderate portion of riches, he opened his hand to those who solicited his kindness, and was ready to assist all who applied to him. His mind was so bountiful, that he scarce knew what it was to deny. He was once solicited by a friend to give a trifle to a poor widow. He asked how much he should give. About two guineas. No, that I will not. Why, then, give what you please. He presented his friend with a bank note of 30l. Of this I should despise the mention, if it were a matter of rarity and wonder. A gentlewoman, who had known him from his youth, and had been acquainted with his relations at Lichfield, applied to him for assistance in her necessities. He made her a present of one hundred pounds. He had several almoners, to whom he gave sums of money to distribute to such objects as they approved. Heaven only knows the extent of that beneficence which flowed continually from this large-minded man.

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There are two remarkably generous deeds of Mr. Garrick, which are so well authenticated, that it would be an act of injustice to his memory to conceal them from the world. A gentleman of fashion, and a man universally beloved and esteemed, borrowed five hundred pounds of Mr. Garrick, for which sum he gave his note of hand. By some vicissitude of fortune the affairs of this gentleman were greatly distressed; his friends and relations, who loved him, were determined to free him from uneasiness, by satisfying his creditors. A day of meeting for that purpose was appointed, on which they were to be very cheerful. Mr. Garrick heard of it, and instead of taking advantage of the information to put in his claim, he inclosed the good note in a letter, in which he told the gentleman, that he had been informed, that a jovial meeting was to take place between him and his friends, and that it was to be a bonfire-day, he therefore desired he would consign the inclosed note to the flames.

The other anecdote is still more to Mr. Garrick's honour. He was very intimate with an eminent surgeon, who died several years since, a very amiable man, who often dined and supped with Mr. and Mrs. Garrick. One day after dinner the gentleman declared, that his affairs were in such a situation, that without the assistance of a friend, who would lend him a thousand pounds, he should be at a loss what to do. A thousand pounds! said Mr. Garrick, that is a devilish large sum! well now, pray what security can you give for that money? Upon my word, replied the surgeon, no other than my own. Here's a pretty fellow, said Roscius, turning to Mrs. Garrick, he wants a thousand pounds upon his personal security! Well, come, I'll tell you one thing for your comfort; I know a man, that at my desire will lend you a thousand pounds. He immediately drew upon his banker for that sum, and gave the draft to his friend. Mr. Garrick never asked for, or received a shilling of it.

Innumerable stories of humanity, generosity, and charity, could be told of him, enough to fill a volume. I have heard Dr. Johnson say, that he believed David Garrick gave away more money than any man in London. Some, perhaps, may call his charity ostentation; be it so, but ostentation is not avarice. Strip every man that does an act of kindness of the love of fame in doing it, and to what a small heap you will reduce that vast mountain of benevolence of which the world now boasts! Such ostentation as Mr. Garrick's, if it was ostentation, was a glorious virtue; and I heartily wish he had many imitators.

The true character of a man is always more accurately known to his neighbours than to the world at large; to those who live with him, near him, and round about him, than to persons at a distance. Go then, you who still entertain a doubt of Mr. Garrick's charity and benevolence; go to Hampton, and learn what every inhabitant of that village will say of him; they will tell you, from their own knowledge and experience, that his loss is generally and heavily felt; that it is so great, they cannot hope it will be soon repaired; that the poor inhabitants of that place have, in him, lost a kind friend and an affectionate father; that his benefactions to them were continually increasing; that, amongst other instances of his paternal regard for the poor, he had, a few years before his death, instituted a little annual feast for children. Every first of May he invited all the children of the village to come into his garden; there he distributed to them large pieces of cake, with a small present of money; and on this anniversary, I have been told, it was his intention

tion in future to have increased his donations. He was as great a prodigy of unlimited bounty, as of extensive genius.

To conclude: No man of his profession had ever been so much the object of admiration; few men were ever more beloved; nor was any man better formed to adorn society, or more sincerely disposed and qualified to serve mankind, than David Garrick.

This is certainly a laboured and high finished picture; but we are in some doubt whether it may not be called a flattering likeness, the features being all softened, and every speck and blemish industriously removed from the sight. One article, in particular, in the long list of warm encomiums we cannot but think highly exaggerated, viz. Mr. Garrick's wonderful and unbounded *generosity*, so contrary to the generally received opinion of him, that it will require all this panegyrist's eloquence to render the assertion credible. That Mr. Garrick, though naturally parsimonious, or, if Mr. Davies pleases, prudently economical, was not deficient in occasional acts of charity and beneficence, we may perhaps readily allow: but that he was, as he here assures us, a *prodigy of unlimited bounty*, is a fact which many of his readers will, we believe, be inclined to call in question, as well as the similar position which follows, that 'few men were ever more *beloved*.' This is by no means strictly true; for though Mr. Garrick had many amiable qualities and virtues, those qualities and virtues were, from the nature of his situation in life, known but to few; whilst his faults were, for the same reason, particularly in consequence of his business as a manager, openly exposed to thousands, and must consequently have raised him many enemies. Mr. Davies probably, and some others, experienced his *generosity*, and of course *loved* him; but it does not therefore follow that he was always *generous*, or that he was universally *beloved*.

Upon the whole, the life of David Garrick, Esq. may be considered as a proper appendix to, or continuation of, the History of the Stage by Colley Cibber. Mr. Davies's book is full as entertaining, and in our opinion at least as well, if not better written; the style is easy and unaffected, the characters well drawn, and the critical remarks on plays and actors in general sensible and just.—Mr. Davies, though a very honest and worthy man, has not, either as actor or bookseller, been remarkably successful; we hope and believe that he will find his third and last profession of an historian, as it is undoubtedly the most honourable, the most advantageous also: as from the merit of this performance we are inclined to think he will sell more of his own books than he ever did of any other author's; and most certain it is, that he never acted any part so well as that of a *biographer*.

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*A General Dictionary of the English Language. One main Object of which, is, to establish a plain and permanent Standard of Pronunciation. To which is prefixed a Rhetorical Grammar. By Thomas Sheridan, A. M. 2 Vols. 4to. 17. 11s. 6d. boards. Doddsley.*

**I**N this age of refinement, when both sexes are ambitious of appearing to the greatest advantage; when external ornaments and ostentatious accomplishments are the supreme objects of attention; when the outside is set off with all imaginable elegance; the hair erected into a beautiful structure, and the cheek adorned with artificial tints; when the teeth are polished, enamelled, or transplanted, the fingers taught to use the pen and the pencil, or to play on a musical instrument; the body to bow, the knees to courtesy, and the feet to move in concert with the sound of the fiddle; it is astonishing, that the most useful part of the human frame, the instrument of speech, should be neglected, and that little or no care should be employed in the modulation of the voice. Yet this is really the case. The generality of our beaux and belles learn to speak and to read; but, instead of endeavouring to acquire an easy, natural, and graceful elocution, they mumble, they gabble, they squeak, they lisp, they whine, they cant, they falter, they stammer, they stutter; in short, they fall into the most unnatural and disagreeable tones, and throw their features into a variety of awkward grimaces.

Many treatises have been published on the art of reading; and several societies have been lately formed, with a design to exercise the youth of both sexes in that of speaking; but a right pronunciation is the first principle in oratory, the foundation of all correct reading and speaking; and if this be neglected, all other rules of elocution will be preposterous and insignificant.

The author of the work before us has therefore very properly attempted to point out the true pronunciation of every common word in the English language, and opened a way for the acquisition of a just and graceful delivery.

It may be asked, what right he has to assume the office of a legislator on this occasion, and what his pretensions are to establish 'an absolute standard' in an article, which is very far from being in a settled state. For custom, which Horace calls, 'jus et norma loquendi,' is a phantom, which is not to be found in any class of people, without infinite variations. There are innumerable words, which are differently pronounced by different persons, at the university, at the bar, in the church, in the senate, and at court. On what foundation

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then can he attempt to establish any certain and invariable standard?

To this question he replies :

• There was a time, and that at no very distant period, which may be called the Augustan age of England, I mean during the reign of queen Anne, when English was the language spoken at court; and when the same attention was paid to propriety of pronunciation, as that of French at the court of Versailles. This produced a uniformity in that article in all the polite circles; and a gentleman or lady would have been as much ashamed of a wrong pronunciation then, as persons of a liberal education would now be of misspelling words. But on the accession of a foreign family to the throne, amid the many blessings conferred by that happy event, the English language suffered much by being banished the court, to make room for the French. From that time the regard formerly paid to pronunciation has been gradually declining; so that now the greatest improprieties in that point are to be found among people of fashion; many pronunciations, which thirty or forty years ago were confined to the vulgar, are gradually gaining ground; and if something be not done to stop this growing evil, and fix a general standard at present, the English is likely to become a mere jargon, which every one may pronounce as he pleases. It is to be wished, that such a standard had been established at the period before mentioned, as it is probable, that English was then spoken in its highest state of perfection. Nor is it yet too late to recover it in that very state. It was my fortune to receive the early part of my education under a master, who made that a material object of instruction to the youth committed to his care. He was the intimate friend, and chosen companion of Swift; who had passed great part of his life in a familiar intercourse with the most distinguished men of the age, whether for rank or genius. Eminent as he was for the purity and accuracy of his style, he was not more attentive to that point in writing, than he was to exactness of pronunciation in speaking. Nor could he bear to hear any mistakes committed by his friends in that respect, without correcting them. I had the happiness to be much with him in the early part of my life, and for several months read to him three or four hours a day, receiving still the benefit of his instruction. I have since had frequent opportunities of being convinced that a uniformity of pronunciation had prevailed at the court of queen Anne, by comparing Swift's with that of many distinguished personages who were there initiated into life; among the number of which were the duke of Dorset and the earl of Chesterfield. And that very pronunciation is still the customary one among the descendants of all the politer part of the world bred in that reign. Upon investigating the principles on which the pronunciation of that time was formed, I found, that though there were no rules laid down for its regulation, yet  
there

there was a secret influence of analogy constantly operating, which attracted the different words, according to their several classes, to itself as their center. And where there were any deviations from that analogy, the anomalies were founded upon the best principle by which speech can be regulated, that of preferring the pronunciation which was the most easy to the organs of speech, and consequently most agreeable to the ear. So far the author has laid open his pretensions, upon a supposition that pronunciation depended only upon custom and fashion. But when he adds, that he is the first who ever laid open the principles upon which our pronunciation is founded, and the rules by which it is regulated, he hopes the claim he has laid in to the office he has undertaken, will not be considered as either vain or presumptuous.

When we reflect, that no evil so great can befall any language, as a perpetual fluctuation both in point of spelling and pronouncing, it is surely a point to be wished, that a permanent and obvious standard to both should at some certain period be established: and if possible, that period should be fixed upon, when probably they were in the greatest degree of perfection. Dr. Johnson's spelling has been implicitly followed in the present dictionary. It scarce deviates from that used by the writers in queen Anne's reign; as he has judiciously rejected several innovations attempted since that time by vain and pragmatical writers, who, from an affectation of singularity, have attempted to introduce changes, upon principles which will by no means stand the test of examination: and it might indisputably be proved, that no alterations in that respect, productive of any real benefit, can be made, without new moulding our alphabet, and making a considerable addition to its characters; a point utterly impracticable.

With regard to pronunciation, the author has laid his reasons before the public of his having followed that which was established at the same æra. Thus, in both these articles, has he in this one work endeavoured to fix two anchors to our floating language, in order to keep it steady against the gales of caprice, and current of fashion.

Here the author builds on a foundation, which seems to be as fluctuating and unsteady, as 'the gales of caprice, or the current of fashion,' that is, the pronunciation, which prevailed in the reign of queen Anne. For how does it appear, that there was any kind of uniformity in this article, at that time? How can any man be assured, that he has not been frequently misled by his instructors, or his friends? that he has avoided all peculiarities, and provincial barbarisms? and that he has retained forty thousand fugitive sounds, with the utmost accuracy and precision, for the space of half a century?

With respect to that uniformity, which our author speaks of, we can only say, that, if we can draw any conclusion from

the measure or the rhymes of the poets, who lived in the reign of queen Anne, we can only look upon it as a chimera, a thing that never existed. For instance: our author accents the word *assassin* on the second syllable, as it is now pronounced; but Swift lays the accent on the first.

'Nor thou, lord Arthur, shalt escape;

To thee I often call'd in vain;

Against that *assassin* in crape:

Yet thou couldst tamely see me slain.' Market-hill Thorn.

The word *caprice* is pronounced by Mr. Sheridan, as it is by Swift in these lines:

'How have you torn my heart to pieces,

With maggots, humours, and *caprices*?' Love Poem.

But it was very differently pronounced by Pope in 1709:

'Thus critics of less judgment than *caprice*,

Curious not knowing, not exact but *nice*.' Ess. on Crit. 285.

And afterwards, when he wrote his Essay on Man:

'That counterworks each folly and *caprice*,

And disappoints th' effects of ev'ry *vice*.' Ep. ii. 239.

And differently from both by Dr. Young.

'From *caprice*, not from choice, their favours come.' Sat. iii.

In the word *bigotted*, or, as it should be spelled, *bigoted*, Mr. Sheridan places the accent on the first syllable: but Mr. Samuel Garth, in the Dispensary, a *correct* edition of which was published in 1710, places it on the second.

'*Bigotted* to this idol, we disclaim

Rest, health, and ease, for nothing but a name.' Cant. iii.

*Insult* is accented by our author on the first syllable, by Garth, on the second.

'The wise thro' thought th' *insults* of death defy.' Cant. iii.

According to Mr. Sheridan, and the present mode of pronunciation, the *i* in *magazine* should be pronounced like *u*; but according to Garth like *i* in the word *incline*.

'Thus a weak state, by wise distrust *inclines*

To num'rous stores, and strength in *magazines*.' Cant. iv.

*Draught* our author pronounces *draft*; but Pope and Swift make it rhyme to *brought*, *thought*, &c.

'Delicious wines th' attending herald *brought*;

The gold gave lustre to the purple *draught*.' Odys. i. 187.

'The cold conceits, the chilling *thoughts*,

Went down like stupifying *draughts*.'

Swift, On Burning a dull Poem.

Mr.



Mr. Sheridan places the accent on the first syllable in *barrier*; Pope on the last:

'Twixt that and reason, what a nice *barrier*,  
For ever sep'rate, yet for ever *near*!' Ess. on Man, i. 223.

Nothing surely could be more frequently mentioned in all polite circles, in the reign of queen Anne, than *tea*; yet the poets of that æra would lead us to imagine, that it was not then pronounced *tea*, but *say*. Thus Pope in the Rape of the Lock, written in 1712.

'Here thou, great Anna, whom three realms *obey*,  
Dost sometimes counsel take, and sometimes *tea*.' Cant. iii. 7.

'Soft yielding minds to water glide *away*,  
And sip, with nymphs, their elemental *tea*.' Cant. i. 61.

'Tell, tell, your griefs, attentive will I *say*,  
Tho' time is precious, and I want some *tea*.' Bass. Table, 27.

Young seems to have pronounced it in the same manner:

'Can vent her thunders, and her lightnings *play*,  
O'er cooling gruel, and composing *tea*.' Sat. v.

Swift says:

'Then if we once can seize the *key*,  
And chest, that keeps my lady's *tea*.' Rev. of Market-hill.

But how he pronounced the word *key* appears by the following couplet:

'You next to Dennis bear the *sway*;  
To you we often trust the *key*.' Paneg. on the Dean.

The word *sea* seems to have been frequently pronounced in the same manner, *say*; for the corresponding rhymes in Pope and others, are generally, *bay*, *lay*, *way*, *obey*, *array*, *day*, &c.

Mr. Sheridan adopts the common pronunciation of these three words, *tea*, *key*, *sea*.

*Gallant* (the noun) is accented by Mr. Sheridan on the *second* syllable, as it is usually pronounced; but Pope in his Epilogue to Jane Shore, which was published about the year 1713, lays the accent on the *first*.

'Faith, *gal'lants* board with saints and bed with sinners.'

Swift accents the noun *record* on the second syllable:

'Shall stand for ages on *record*.' Market-hill Thora.

Addison and Pope on the first:

'In the smooth *records* of a faithful verse.' Campaign.

'It stands on *record*, that in Richard's times.'

Pope's Imit. of Hor. Sat. i. 145.

Mr. Sheridan, in his *Rhetorical Grammar*, adopts the common pronunciation, which is that of Addison and Pope; but, in his *Dictionary*, he follows the pronunciation of Swift, accenting both the noun and the verb alike. This is not agreeable to that analogy, which is observed in a multitude of English words, accented on the first syllable, when they are nouns, or adjectives, and on the last, when they are verbs: as, reb'el rebel', object object', con'duct conduct', con'vert convert', pres'ent present', tor'ment torment', proj'ect project', des'ert desert', ac'cent accent', fre'quent frequent'.

We should suppose the accent on the second syllable of the noun *record* an error of the *press*, if the author had not told us, 'that he has exerted such industry in the examination of each proof sheet, before it was printed off, that he hopes there is not an error of any consequence throughout the whole.'

By these examples, and many others, which might be produced, we are inclined to think, that there was no uniformity of pronunciation, in any class of people, in the reign of queen Anne. Our author, on this occasion, is like a traveller, who amuses us with the description of a country we have never seen; and who relates many wonderful things, of which we have our doubts, but cannot deny his assertions, upon any certain authority, or personal observation.

The *Rhetorical Grammar*, which Mr. Sheridan has prefixed to his *Dictionary*, contains many excellent observations, on the nature and formation of simple sounds, on diphthongs, on the pronunciation of English words, on the art of delivery, on accent, on emphasis, on pauses, on tones, on poetic numbers, and other similar subjects.

Speaking of articulation he says;

'A good articulation consists in giving every letter in a syllable its due proportion of sound, according to the most approved custom of pronouncing it; and in making such a distinction between the syllables, of which words are composed, that the ear shall without difficulty acknowledge their number; and perceive, at once, to which syllable each letter belongs. Where these points are not observed, the articulation is proportionably defective, &c. The chief source of indistinctness is too great a precipitancy of utterance. To cure this, the most effectual method will be, to *lay aside* [set apart] an hour every day, to be employed in the practice of reading aloud, in a manner much *slower* than is necessary. This should be done in the hearing of some person, whose office it should be to remind the reader, if at any time he should perceive him mending his pace, and falling into his old habit.'

On accent he has these useful remarks;

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\* The great distinction of our accent depends upon its seat; which may be either upon a vowel, or a consonant. Upon a vowel, as in the words, glóry, fáther, hóly. Upon a consonant, as in the words, hab'it, bor'row, battle. When the accent is on the vowel, the syllable is long; because the accent is made by dwelling upon the vowel. When it is on the consonant, the syllable is short; because the accent is made by passing rapidly over the vowel, and giving a smart stroke of the voice to the following consonant. Thus the words *add'*, *led'*, *bid'*, *red'*, *cut'*, are all short, the voice passing quickly over the vowel to the consonant: but for a contrary reason, the words *áll*, *láid*, *bíde*, *óad*, *cúbe*, are long; the accent being on the vowels, on which the voice dwells some time, before it takes in the sound of the consonant. Obvious as this point is, it has wholly escaped the observation of all our grammarians, and compilers of dictionaries; who, instead of examining the peculiar genius of our tongue, implicitly and pedantically have followed the Greek method, of always placing the accentual mark over a vowel. Now the reason of this practice among the Greeks, was, that as their accents consisted in change of notes, they could not be distinctly expressed but by the vowels; in uttering which, the passage is entirely clear for the voice to issue, and not interrupted or stopped by the different positions of the organs in forming the consonants. But as our accent consists in stress only, it can just as well be placed on a consonant as a vowel. By this method of marking the accented syllable, our compilers of dictionaries, vocabularies, and spelling-books, must mislead provincials and foreigners in the pronunciation of perhaps one half of the words in our language. For instance; if they should look for the word *endeavour*, finding the accent over the vowel *e* they will of course find it *endéavour*. In the same manner *dédicate* will be called *dédicate*: *precip'itate*, *precí-pitate*; *phenom'énon*, *phenó-ménon*; and so on through all words of the same class. And in fact, we find that the Scots do pronounce all such words in that manner; nor do they ever lay the accent upon the consonant in any word in the whole language; in which, the diversity of their pronunciation from that of the people of England chiefly consists. —

— ' Every word in our language has one accented syllable; but it is to be observed, that in some of our longer polysyllables there are two accents to be perceived; one stronger, the other fainter. Thus, in the word *expos'tulator'y*, the stronger accent is on the syllable *pos'*; but there is a fainter one on the last syllable but one, sounded *tur'*, *expos'tulatur'-ry*: but this makes no difference with regard to the rule, as the primary accent is so much more forcible than the secondary one, as evidently to shew that it is but one word which contains both.

\* To such as have the right use of accent in common discourse, I shall only lay down one rule with regard to it, in reading and speaking in public; which is, that they should always take

care to lay it upon the same letter of the syllable in reading, as they are accustomed to do in conversation; and never to lay any stress upon any other syllable. For there are few who either read aloud, or speak in public, that do not transgress this law of accent, by dwelling equally upon different syllables in the same word: such as, fo'r-tu'ne, na'ture, en'cro'achment, con-jec'tu're, pa'tience, &c. But this is not uttering words, but syllables; which properly pronounced are always tied together by an accent; as, for'tune, na'ture, en'cro'achment, con-jec'ture, pa'tience. Any habit of this sort gives an unnatural constrained air to speech, and should therefore be carefully avoided by all who deliver themselves in public.

On the stops our author makes these important observations:

'There is one article relative to the intonation of the stops, which, though of the utmost importance to a just and graceful delivery, has never yet been pointed out, and which, as demanding the utmost attention, I have reserved for the last place. In the usual method of managing the voice with respect to the stops, we are only taught either to raise or lower it, according to the nature of the stops; but there is a third thing to be done of more frequent use, and as essentially necessary, which is, suspending the voice before certain pauses, without any change of note. The method of pointing out to the ear the close of a sentence, or a full completion of the sense, is by a depressed note. That of marking the members of sentences, or incomplete senses, is either by an elevated or suspended note. The elevated notes should be chiefly appropriated to the emphatic syllables, and should hardly ever otherwise precede pauses, except in notes of admiration, interrogation, or impassioned discourse: the incomplete members of all other sentences should be marked only by a suspension of the voice, in the same individual note, as if it had proceeded without interruption to the next member of the sentence. They who do otherwise, if they elevate the voice at the close of the smaller members, fall into a tune or cant running through all sentences alike. If they depress it, they make the members appear so many detached sentences, and destroy that concatenation of the parts, without which the complete sense of the whole can never clearly be manifested. They who have been accustomed to make some change of note before all stops, will find it very difficult at first to suspend their voice without such change; and their best method to attain it in reading will be, at first, to run the words of the former member, into the first of the latter, without any pause, attending to the note which they use in that case; then let them try to stop at that word in the same note, which will be then just fresh on the ear. But they will have a still more certain method, by having recourse to the general rule before laid down, and asking themselves how they would utter those words, if they were speaking, not reading them.'

In

In confirmation of these remarks we may observe, that if we attend to the tone of the voice, when we are speaking, we shall find, that interrogative and exclamatory sentences are always pronounced with an elevated tone. For example; Have you been at court? Do you go to the masquerade? When did you come out of the country?—Can any thing be more ridiculous! How delightful is this prospect! What a noble air and aspect!—It would be absurd to pronounce such sentences as these, without an elevation of voice.

It may be farther observed, that people in reading are apt to run themselves out of breath; which is one of the principal causes of a disgusting monotony, and a drawling tone. To avoid this impropriety, the reader should make a proper pause at every point, and support his voice, as he proceeds, with energy and spirit. This is done in common discourse; because, the speaker is obliged to pause, while he thinks, which gives him time to breathe. But the reader has no occasion to think, and therefore never stops, till his breath fails him, which often happens in improper places. Whoever then would read with a natural tone of voice, must read no faster than he usually speaks.

The following extract will certainly afford the most useful information to some of our readers, and will gratify the curiosity of others, in a point of national concern, we shall therefore make no apology for the length of it.

But before the author's remarks can be understood, it will be necessary to attend to the scheme of the vowels, which he has given us in the beginning of his *Rhetorical Grammar*.

	First.	Second.	Third.
a	<sup>1</sup> hat	<sup>2</sup> hate	<sup>3</sup> hall.
e	<sup>1</sup> het	<sup>2</sup> bear	<sup>3</sup> beer.
i	<sup>1</sup> fit	<sup>2</sup> fight	<sup>3</sup> field.
o	<sup>1</sup> not	<sup>2</sup> note	<sup>3</sup> noose.
u	<sup>1</sup> but	<sup>2</sup> bush	<sup>3</sup> blue.
y	<sup>1</sup> love-ly	<sup>2</sup> lyc.	

*Rules to be observed by the Natives of Ireland in order to obtain a just Pronunciation of English.*

The chief mistakes made by the Irish in pronouncing English, lie for the most part in the sounds of the two first vowels, *a* and *e*; the former being generally sounded <sup>1</sup>a by the Irish, as in the word *bar*, in most words where it is pronounced <sup>2</sup>a, as in *day*, by the English. Thus the Irish say, *patron*, *matron*, *the*

vowel, <sup>1</sup>*a*, having the same sound as in the word father; whilst the English pronounce them as if written, paytron, maytron. The following rule, strictly attended to, will rectify this mistake through the whole language.

• When the vowel, *a*, finishes a syllable, and has the accent on it, it is invariably pronounced <sup>2</sup>*a* [day] by the English. To this rule there are but three exceptions in the whole language, to be found in the words, father, papa, mama. The Irish may think also the word *rather* an exception, as well as father; and so it would appear to be in their manner of pronouncing it, ra-ther, laying the accent on the vowel *a*; but in the English pronunciation, the consonant, *th*, is taken into the first syllable, as thus, rath'-er, which makes the difference.

• Whenever a consonant follows the vowel *a* in the same syllable, and the accent is on the consonant, the vowel *a* has always its first sound, as hat', man'; as also the same sound lengthened when it precedes the letter *r*, as as far', bar', though the accent be on the vowel; as likewise when it precedes *lm*, as bal'm, psal'm. The Irish, ignorant of this latter exception, pronounce all words of that structure as if they were written, bawm, psawm, quawm, cawm, &c. In the third sound of *a*, marked by different combinations of vowels, or consonants, such as *au*, in Paul; *aw*, in law; *all*, in call; *ald*, in bald; *alt*, in talk, &c. the Irish make no mistake, except that in *lm*, as before mentioned.

• The second vowel, *e*, is for the most part sounded *ee* by the English, when the accent is upon it; whilst the Irish in most words give it the sound of second <sup>2</sup>*a*, as in hate. This sound of <sup>3</sup>*e* [ee] is marked by different combinations of vowels, such as, *ea*, *ei*, *e* final mute, *ee*, and *ie*. In the two last combinations of *ee* and *ie*, the Irish never mistake; such as in meet, seem, field, believe, &c.; but in all the others, they almost universally change the sound of <sup>3</sup>*e*, into <sup>2</sup>*a*. Thus in the combination *ea*, they pronounce the words, tea, sea, please, as if they were spelt, tay, say, plays; instead of tee, see, please. The English constantly giving this sound to *ea*, whenever the accent is on the vowel *e*, except in the following words, great, a pear, a bear, to bear, to forbear, to swear, to tear, to wear. In all which the *e* has its second sound. For want of knowing these exceptions, the gentlemen of Ireland, after some time of residence in London, are apt to fall into the general rule, and pronounce these words as if spelt, greet, beer, sweer, &c.

• *Ei*, is also sounded *ee* by the English, and as <sup>2</sup>*a* by the Irish; thus the words *decit*, *reclive*, are pronounced by them as if writ-

ten *defeat*, *refuse*. *Ei* is always sounded *ee*, except when a *g* follows it, as in the words *reign*, *feign*, *deign*, &c. as also in the words, *rein* (of a bridle), *rein-deer*, *vain*, *drain*, *vail*, *hair*, which are pronounced like *rain*, *vain*, *drain*, *vail*, *air*.

The final mute *e* makes the preceding *e* in the same syllable, when accented, have the sound of *ee*, as in the words, *supreme*, *sincere*, *replete*. This rule is almost universally broken through by the Irish, who pronounce all words as if written, *suprame*, *finsare*, *replate*, &c. There are but two exceptions to this rule in the English pronunciation, which are the words, *there*, *where*.

In the way of marking this sound, by a double *e*, as the Irish never make any mistakes, the best method for all who want to acquire the right pronunciation of these several combinations, is, to suppose that *ea*, *ei*, and *e* attended by a final mute *e*, are all spelt with a double *e*, or *ee*.

*Ey* is always sounded like *a* by the English, when the accent is upon it; as in the words, *prey*, *convey*, pronounced *pray*, *convay*. To this there are but two except in the words *key* and *ley*, sounded *kee*, *lee*. The Irish, in attempting to pronounce like the English, often give the same sound to *ey*, as usually belongs to *ei*; thus for *prey*, *convey*, they say *pree*, *convue*.

A strict observation of these few rules, with a due attention to the very few exceptions enumerated above, will enable the well-educated natives of Ireland to pronounce their words exactly in the same way as the more polished part of the inhabitants of England do, so far as the vowels are concerned. The diphthongs they commit no fault in, except in the sound of *i*; which has been already taken notice of in the Grammar. Where likewise the only difference in pronouncing any of the consonants has been pointed out; which is the thickening the sounds of *d* and *t*, in certain situations; and an easy method proposed of correcting this habit.

In order to complete the whole, I shall now give a list of such detached words, that do not come under any of the above rules, as are pronounced differently in Ireland from what they are in England.

<i>Irish pron.</i>	<i>English pron.</i>		<i>Irish pron.</i>	<i>English pron.</i>
<sup>3</sup> chea <sup>1</sup> rful	<sup>1</sup> cher <sup>1</sup> ful	gather	<sup>1</sup> geth <sup>1</sup> er	<sup>1</sup> gath <sup>1</sup> er
<sup>3</sup> f <sup>3</sup> e <sup>3</sup> arful	<sup>1</sup> fer <sup>1</sup> ful		<sup>3</sup> be <sup>1</sup> ard	<sup>1</sup> berd
<sup>3</sup> door	<sup>3</sup> dore		<sup>3</sup> bull	<sup>2</sup> bull
<sup>3</sup> f <sup>3</sup> oor	<sup>2</sup> flore		<sup>3</sup> bush	<sup>2</sup> bush
<sup>2</sup> ga <sup>1</sup> pe	<sup>1</sup> ga <sup>1</sup> pe		<sup>3</sup> push	<sup>2</sup> push

*Irish*

<i>Irish pron.</i>	<i>English pron.</i>		<i>Irish pron.</i>	<i>English pron.</i>
<sup>1</sup> pull	<sup>2</sup> pull		<sup>1</sup> wra th	<sup>3</sup> wro th
<sup>1</sup> pul <sup>1</sup> pit	<sup>2</sup> pul <sup>2</sup> pit	wroth	<sup>3</sup> wrath	<sup>1</sup> wroth
<sup>3</sup> calf	<sup>1</sup> calf	<sup>2</sup> fa <sup>2</sup> rewel	<sup>1</sup> far <sup>1</sup> wel	
catch	<sup>1</sup> ketch	<sup>2</sup> rode	<sup>1</sup> rod	
coarse	<sup>3</sup> course	<sup>2</sup> stode	<sup>1</sup> stod	
course	<sup>3</sup> cours <sup>3</sup> e	<sup>2</sup> shone	<sup>1</sup> shon	
court	<sup>3</sup> court	schism	<sup>1</sup> shism	<sup>1</sup> sizm
malicious	<sup>3</sup> mal <sup>3</sup> icious	<sup>2</sup> wh <sup>2</sup> e refore	<sup>1</sup> wher <sup>1</sup> fore	
pudding	<sup>2</sup> pudding	<sup>2</sup> the refore	<sup>1</sup> ther <sup>1</sup> fore	
quash	<sup>1</sup> quosh	breadth	<sup>1</sup> breth	<sup>1</sup> bred th
leisure	<sup>3</sup> lezh <sup>3</sup> ur	cold	<sup>2</sup> cowld	<sup>2</sup> cold
	<sup>1</sup> cla <sup>1</sup> mour	bold	<sup>2</sup> bowld	<sup>2</sup> bold
Michael	<sup>3</sup> Mi <sup>3</sup> kil	<sup>1</sup> cof <sup>1</sup> fer	<sup>2</sup> eo <sup>2</sup> fer	
drought	<sup>3</sup> droth	<sup>2</sup> ende <sup>2</sup> avour	<sup>1</sup> endev <sup>1</sup> ur	
search	<sup>1</sup> serch	fut	<sup>2</sup> fut	<sup>2</sup> fut
source	<sup>3</sup> source		<sup>3</sup> mischi <sup>3</sup> evous	<sup>1</sup> mis <sup>1</sup> chivous
	<sup>1</sup> cushion	onion	<sup>1</sup> in <sup>1</sup> ion	<sup>1</sup> un <sup>1</sup> nyun
strength	<sup>1</sup> strenth		<sup>2</sup> put	<sup>2</sup> put
length	<sup>1</sup> len <sup>1</sup> th	reach	<sup>1</sup> retsh	<sup>3</sup> reach
strove	<sup>1</sup> struv		<sup>1</sup> squa <sup>1</sup> dron	<sup>1</sup> squod <sup>1</sup> run
drove	<sup>1</sup> druv	<sup>2</sup> zea <sup>2</sup> lous	<sup>1</sup> zel <sup>1</sup> lus	
	<sup>1</sup> ten <sup>1</sup> ure	<sup>2</sup> zealot	<sup>1</sup> zel <sup>1</sup> lut	
	<sup>3</sup> ten <sup>3</sup> able			
	<sup>3</sup> ten <sup>3</sup> able			

\* These, after the closest attention, are all the words not included in the rules before laid down, that I have been able to collect, in which the well-educated natives of Ireland differ from those of England.

\* With regard to the natives of SCOTLAND—as their dialect differs more, and in a greater number of points, from the English, than that of any others who speak that language, it will require a greater number of rules, and more pains to correct it. The most material difference in point of pronunciation, and which pervades their whole speech, is that of always laying the accent on the vowel, in words where it ought to be on the consonant. This has been already taken notice of in the Grammar, and the method of curing this habit pointed out. In this article therefore they should chiefly exercise themselves, till they attain a fa-



a facility in accenting the consonants, and giving their true sounds to the preceding vowels, according to the rule there laid down; for it is in this that the chief difference between the Scotch and English pronunciation consists. With regard to intonation indeed, or what is commonly called the Scotch accent; they totally differ from the English; of which I have treated at large in my Lectures on the Art of Reading. But in this, written rules can be of little use, except when assisted by the living voice; and therefore the aid of masters, who shall join example to precept, is here required. If the same arduous continues for obtaining a just and polished delivery, which I found prevail among the young gentlemen of Scotland, when I delivered my Course of Lectures at Edinburgh, they will now have it in their power to compass the point upon certain grounds, chiefly by their own labour, and application. Nor will they long be without due assistance, where that is requisite, upon proper encouragement; for as there could be no hopes of having skilful masters to teach this art, without first having a proper method of instruction; so, that method being now laid open, will no doubt induce numbers to apply themselves to the mastery of it, in order to become preceptors in that most useful and ornamental of all arts.

• Nor are there wanting examples to stimulate those who are in pursuit of this object, and to ensure success to their endeavours. There is at this day a gentleman of that country, now in London, in a high office of the law, who did not leave Scotland till after he had been some years advanced in manhood; and yet, after having received instruction for a few months only, according to the method laid down in this work, his speech was not to be distinguished from that of the most polished natives of England, both in point of pronunciation and intonation; and he is, perhaps at this day the best pattern to be followed with regard to both, whether in the house of commons, or at the bar.

• And yet there was still a more extraordinary instance which I met with at Edinburgh, in a lord of session, who, though he had never been out of Scotland, yet merely by his own pains, without rule or method, only conversing much with such Englishmen as happened to be there, and reading regularly with some of the principal actors, arrived even at an accuracy of pronunciation, and had not the least tincture of the Scottish intonation.

• I shall now say a few words to the inhabitants of WALES; in order to shew how easily they might get rid of their provincial dialect.

• The peculiarity of the Welsh pronunciation arises chiefly from their constantly substituting the three pure mates, in the room of the three impure; and the three aspirated semivowels, in the place of the three vocal. Thus instead of *b*, they use *p*; for *g*, they use *k*, or hard *c*; and for *d*, they employ *t*. For blood, they say, plut; for God, Cot; and for dear, tear. In like manner, in the use of the semivowels, they substitute *f* in the place

place of *v*; *s* in the place of *x*; *eth* in the room of *etb*\*; and *esh* in that of *exb*. Thus instead of virtue and vice, they say, *sirtue* and *sice*; instead of zeal and praise, they say, *seal* and *praisse*; instead of these and those, *these* and *thiose*; instead of azure, *osier*, they say, *ashur*, *osher*. Thus there are no less than seven of our consonants which the Welsh never pronounce at all. Now if the difference in the manner of formation between these seven consonants and their seven correspondent ones, were pointed out to them, in the way described in the Grammar, they might in a short time be taught the perfect use of them.

The people of Somersetshire pronounce the semivowels in a way directly opposite to that of the Welsh. For whereas the Welch change the vocal into the aspirate, they of Somersetshire change the aspirate into the vocal. For father, they say, *va-ther*; for Somersetshire, *Zomerzetzhire*; for thin, *thin*. So that their method of cure, is to take the direct opposite course to that of the Welsh.

In a future Review we shall consider that standard of pronunciation, which the ingenious author has endeavoured to establish in this Dictionary.

[ *To be continued.* ]

*Galic Antiquities: consisting of A History of the Druids, particularly of those of Caledonia; A Dissertation on the Authenticity of the Poems of Ossian; and A Collection of Ancient Poems, translated from the Galic of Ullin, Ossian, Orran, &c. By John Smith. 4to. 10s. 6d. boards. Cadell.*

NO institution of ancient times is involved in greater obscurity than that of the Druids, which, though invested with the supreme jurisdiction, both spiritual and temporal, in the countries where it prevailed, survives only in the incidental and imperfect accounts delivered of it by a few of the Greek and Roman writers. If any new light, however, can be thrown on the subject, a native of the Highlands of Scotland seems to be the person most likely to effect such a purpose. From his particular acquaintance with the Celtic customs and manners, and the idioms of that language, he is peculiarly enabled to form plausible conjectures, to ascertain the probability of vague or unauthenticated relations, and thereby either to confirm or invalidate the testimony of writers who, we may suppose, derived their information from sources of doubtful authority.

Mr. Smith begins with an account of the establishment of the Druids, and of their different orders. It has been imagined that the title of the Druids was derived from the Greek

\* Th as in the word *thin*; th, as in *then*.

name of the oak; but our author, with greater probability, deduces it from the word *druidb*, which, in the Galic language, signifies *wise men*, and is still the term in the Highlands for natural philosophers, or magicians. Mr. Smith observes, that it seems to have the same import with the name of the Eastern magi, who, like the druids and many other religious sects, united the character of the philosopher and the divine, and made both sciences one and the same profession.

Besides those who were properly called Druids, the sect comprehended the Bards, Sennachai, and Eubages, who were all subject to an arch-druid, or supreme pontiff. Different sentiments have been entertained by antiquaries, in respect of the Eubages, concerning whom we meet with an ingenious conjecture, derived also from etymology.

Of these ranks, says the author, the Eubages, or Eubates, seem to have been the lowest. What this order were, it is difficult precisely to determine. In history their character is not distinctly marked, and in tradition it is left equally vague. Some have supposed them to be the same with the Vates and Ouates; which are manifestly no more than corruptions of the Celtic *Faidh*, or prophet. But this opinion we have some reason to doubt. The Greek and Latin writers were too well acquainted with the name and character of a prophet to mistake it so far, if it had been what they meant to express by Eubages. And the Druids, especially, were by much too jealous to devolve a privilege so very honourable, as the prescience of future events, upon an inferior class of men, as these undoubtedly were. Nay, they seem not only to have been inferior to the Druids, but also to the Bards. Marcellinus, indeed, says, that "they searched into the sublimest properties of nature." But probably this might be with a view to open and enlarge their minds, before they were admitted to offices of such importance to the public, as those of either the Bards or Druids. If to this we add, what seems to be the most obvious etymology of the name, we may perhaps have the true notion of the Eubages, though we dare not offer it as decisive. *Dea*, or *deu* 'phaiste, which in the oblique cases sounds 'eu vaiste, would readily be pronounced by a stranger eubage, or, with a proper termination, eubages. Now this word in the Celtic, signifies good or promising youths; such as the Druids, who had the whole management and education of the young, would naturally direct to the most important offices, which, without any respect to family or tribe, were always given to the most worthy.

After general observations upon the Druidical institution, and the provinces into which it was distinguished, Mr. Smith proceeds to a more particular view of the Druids in their several offices. He begins with considering their sacerdotal cha-

character, and gives an account of their religious faith and worship. The author produces some ingenious arguments towards evincing that the Gaulish and British Druids did not give into idolatry and polytheism till after they were conquered by the Romans.

• Ancient authors, indeed, take no notice of this circumstance. They rather speak of the Druids of even these countries as worshipping a multiplicity of deities, prior to the introduction of their gods. At this we cannot be surprised, as it was natural for persons who saw their own country swarm with divinities, to think they must be equally numerous in other nations. It were easy to shew, further, that they were often misled, not more by this prejudice, than by appearances. Whenever they saw any ceremony that resembled any religious rite which they were acquainted with at home, they readily concluded, that here it had the same object, and the same meaning. Thus, if hymns were sung by the bards over an hero's tomb, they would infer it was in honour of some god, whose name they would gather from some other circumstance. Or if a person was struck with awe on hearing the Taranich or thunder, and thereby led to put up an ejaculation to the Deity, the Taranis itself would be construed to be the object of their worship.

• Among the Greeks, there were many heaps of stones consecrated to Mercury; and among the Latins, there were numberless rude pillars consecrated to the same divinity, under the denomination of Faunus. In Gaul and Britain, nothing was more frequent than heaps and pillars exactly similar to these; the first being monuments raised over the dead; and the last, signs of memorable events, or altars of the Druids. But a Roman soldier, left to his own conjecture, for the first maxim of their religion forbade the natives to instruct him on this head, would immediately conclude, that they were, as in his own country, symbols of Mercury. Hence we are told, that Mercury was the principal object of the Druidical worship. The Romans would likewise see other ceremonies not unlike those performed by their countrymen to Apollo, from which they would infer, that these were in honour of the same deity. They saw these ceremonies performed on heaps which the natives called carns; and therefore they joined the epithet of Carneus to Apollo. They learnt that they were performed to a Being of whom the grian or sun was considered as the symbol; and therefore they likewise gave to their Apollo the title of Grannus, and thought he was certainly the same with the Be'il worshipped by the Druids. Thus it was easy, if men judged from resemblances, to find many a Roman divinity in Britain, which, in fact, the natives had no knowledge of till after their intercourse with that people.

• In confirmation of this opinion, Mr. Smith observes that in the Galic or Celtic language, there is not any word which affords

fords the most distant allusion to those divinities. On the contrary, that the figurative name, *Bea'uil*, of which *Be'al* or *Be'il* is the contraction, and which signifies the *life of every thing*, or the *source of all beings*, seems to have been invented by the Druids, on purpose, to guard against polytheism, and any unbecoming notion of the Deity.

The author afterwards endeavours to vindicate the Druids from the imputation of offering human sacrifices. He observes, from all that can be traced of the sacrifices of the Druids in the remains of their customs and language, there is great reason to think, that, so far from being human, they were seldom even of the animal kind. Mr. Smith knows not the least hint, in the Galic language, customs, or traditions, that alludes to animal sacrifices. This silence, he observes, is the more remarkable, as not only the distant allusions, but even the practice, of some of their other sacrifices, have still some existence in several parts of North Britain. These consist of a libation of flour, milk, eggs, and some few herbs and simples. In our author's opinion, a presumption thence arises, that in those countries, at least, the general cast of the Druidical sacrifices was of this nature. The very name of sacrifice in Galic, we are told, is composed of two words which signify *the offering of the cake*.

These observations appear to carry with them a considerable degree of force, especially when we consider the general character of the Druidical sect, and that those writers, however explicit, who mention human sacrifices, probably drew their information from sources extremely liable both to prejudice and error. This subject is farther prosecuted in the next chapter, which treats of the Druids in their legislative capacity; where, after describing the trial by ordeal, the author thus proceeds:

'The trial being over, and the truth, as was supposed, sufficiently explicated, such criminals as were thought too infamous to live were immediately put to death; and the manner of their execution was, in all likelihood, what gave occasion to such as were neither well acquainted with the Druids, nor well affected to their order, to assert that they offered human sacrifices. What gave this assertion a colour of probability was, that these wretches were put to death by the persons who always presided at sacrifices: on the cairn or altar consecrated to their deity; and on the occasion of celebrating one of his most solemn festivals. Although a stranger had been disposed to relate the truth with the greatest impartiality, every circumstance here had a tendency to deceive him, and to make him suppose these devoted criminals were actually human sacrifices. In one sense, indeed, they were so; sacrifices to the peace and order of society, the maintaining of which was, as has been already observed, the very end and

design of that festival. The Druids also, like good magistrates, zealous for suppressing vice and punishing the guilty, might with great propriety say, that the putting of a criminal to death was a most acceptable sacrifice to the Deity, and a means of averting his displeasure. From all this what could a stranger infer, but that the person was literally sacrificed? That a priest should be the executioner of justice, the punishing of a criminal a religious service, and attended with the same ceremony as the offering up of a victim, would be things too new to him to have any other idea. This account of the matter further corresponds with what Cæsar tells us, when he says that the Druids held criminals to be the most acceptable victims; and we may venture to affirm, that when these were wanting, the innocent seldom or never supplied their room.

Some further hints of this apology for the Druids may be gathered even from their accusers. Cæsar says these victims were burnt amidst branches of trees woven, or heaped together; which was the very death given to the criminals we speak of, who were thus consumed in the holy pacific fire, or *samb'lin*, above mentioned. Here we find no mention of the knife, the altar, or the blood of the victim; on the shedding of which the chief stress was laid in most animal sacrifices. Instead of that, they were cast alive into the fire. And Tacitus observes of the Germans, who had the same customs and the same religion, that over such infamous criminals as we speak of, a heap of every kind of rubbish was raised in token of the people's abhorrence. Now this was the constant usage of the Druids after they had burnt the criminals in the manner we have described; and seems to prove plainly, that Cæsar and Tacitus speak of the same thing; the victims of the one being the malefactors of the other. To which we may add, that the latter restricts the offering of human sacrifices to certain days only, which we may suppose to have been the *affizes* we have spoken of; and also that the *carn*, or, as he would imagine it, the Mercurial heap on which they were held, led him to think they had been offered to Mercury.

But we do not build so much upon these hints, as upon the much clearer evidence of several expressions still in use in the Galic or Celtic language, which shew that this was not a sacrifice, but only an execution of criminals; and that the heaps or mounds, so frequent in many places, were raised in this manner over them. To this day the Galic term for an outlaw, or one whose life is forfeited to public justice on account of any crime, is *fean air char*, "a man upon a *carn*;" and speaking of such a person, the *air char*, "he is upon a *carn*." These expressions have a manifest allusion to the Druidical custom of which we are speaking, and to the mode of judging and punishing criminals upon these cairns in the manner above described. After the execution of this sentence, the heap was increased by a new stratum of stones and rubbish, to which every one present

contributed his share, both to shew his approbation of the judgment and his detestation of the crime. This procedure is confirmed by the bones and ashes found (sometimes with, and sometimes without, stone-coffins) at different depths in the same carn, and also in different quarters of it. We have likewise several expressions of the imprecatory kind which tend to elucidate this custom. '*Seil leam nach raibh do l'arbh fui' 'charn.* and *B'fbiar leam e bbi fui' 'charn cblach,* are forms of malediction that wish one under a heap of stones, and one's ashes under a cairn; expressions that obviously allude to the Druidical procedure with regard to criminals. To this we may add, that the Welsh also call these heaps *carn-vraduwr*, and *carn-lhudron*, "thief and traitor's carns;" and that they have likewise an imprecation, *kern a dy ben*, to the same purpose with these just now mentioned. Here every thing alludes to the execution of criminals; nothing to the offering up of human sacrifices.'

It affords us pleasure to find so much plausible argument produced in refutation of a charge, which not only reflects disgrace on the ancient Britons in general, but is apparently repugnant to the principles of an order that has been celebrated for wisdom and humanity: as, relating to an important article among the customs of ancient times, the subject highly merited investigation; and this ingenious writer, by opening a new channel of enquiry, has extracted such evidence as it was impossible to obtain from researches merely historical.

In the fourth chapter, the author considers the Druids under the character of natural philosophers, a capacity in which they are said to have been particularly eminent; and in the fifth, he takes a view of them in the light of physicians, another of the various departments which they occupied in the state. Through the whole narrative, which contains a more copious account of the Druids than any we have hitherto seen, the author supports his observations in a strain of irreprehensible reasoning; and wherever he dissents from the testimony of ancient writers, he has recourse to such arguments as at least justify, if not fully establish, his opinion.

In the Dissertation on the Authenticity of Ossian's Poems, Mr. Smith draws many of his arguments also from observations on the language and customs of the Highlanders. He first examines the internal, and then the external evidence for the authenticity of those poems; proceeding afterwards to answer the chief objections which have been made to their being genuine. On the two first of those heads he follows, in general, the arguments advanced by Dr. Blair; reserving his own observations for the last of the above mentioned heads, which he examines with great attention.

The first of the objections he considers is, 'That such an early period could not produce such poems.' To give a detail of the many observations adduced on this subject, would extend our review to too great length. We shall therefore only observe, that Mr. Smith, in a clear and forcible manner, combats the objection, by analogical reasoning, by ancient Celtic customs, and by instances drawn from the history of other nations.

The second objection is, 'That if so early a period could produce such poems, they could not be so long preserved in so illiterate a country.' In answer to this objection, Mr. Smith traces the causes which have operated for the preservation of Ossian's Poems. The first he mentions is the institution of the bards. He observes that,

'A great part of the business of this order was to watch over the poems of Ossian. In every family of distinction, there was at least one principal bard, and always a number of disciples, who vied with each other in having these poems in the greatest perfection; so that if a line was added, altered, or left out, another would not fail to shew his zeal and superiority, by correcting him. They had likewise frequent opportunities, in attending their chiefs to other families, of meeting in crowds and rehearsing these poems, which at home or abroad, were night and day their employment.—Should the institution of the bards last for ever, the poems of Ossian could never perish.

'Nor were they only the bards of great families who were here concerned. The vassal, equally fond of the song with his superior, entertained himself in the same manner; and all, under his influence, by contributing to his amusement in this way, were sure of obtaining his favour. This, with a life free from care, a spirit unbroken by labour, and a space of time unoccupied by any other employment or diversion, contributed to render the Highlanders a nation of singers and poets.'

It would be unnecessary to prosecute any farther the evidence respecting the authenticity of Ossian's Poems translated by Mr. Macpherson, as the fact appears to be established beyond the possibility of scepticism. In order to prevent any groundless imputation from being also thrown on the poems now published by Mr. Smith, he has mentioned the names of the persons who favoured him with most of the originals by oral recitation; and likewise specifies the liberties which were necessary to be taken, for introducing, or connecting together such episodes as he found to be detached. He informs us, that in supplying those breaches, he has for the most part been guided by the traditional tales of *sgulacbd*, which always accompany and explain the old Galic poems, and



and which often remain entire, when the poems themselves are reduced to fragments. The compositions which Mr. Smith has translated, are poems of Ullin, Offian, Orran, &c. and were collected in various parts of the West Highlands, particularly on the estates of Argyle and Breadalbane in that country. The poems bear the following titles, viz. Dargo, Part First and Second, Gaul, Duthona, Dermid, Finan and Lorma, Cathluina, Cathula, Manos, Trathal, Dargo the Son of Druivel, Cuthon, the Fall of Tura, Cathlava, and the Death of Artho.

As a specimen of those poems, we shall lay before our readers the following extract from the first.

‘ See! Dargo rests beneath his lonely tree, and listens to the breeze in its rustling leaf. The ghost of Crimoina rises on the blue lake below: the deer see it, and stalk, without fear, on the upland rock. No hunter, when the sign is seen, disturbs their peace; for the soul of Dargo is sad, and the swift-bounding companion of his chace howls besides him.—I also feel thy grief at my heart, O Dargo; my tears tremble as dew on the grass, when I remember thy woful tale.

‘ Comhal sat on that rock, where now the deer graze on his tomb. The mark of his bed are three gray stones and a leafless oak; they are mantled over with the moss of years. His warriors rested around the chief. Leaning forward on their shields, they listen to the voice of the song. Their faces are sidelong turned; and their eyes, at times, are shut. The bard praised the deeds of the king, when his blasting sword and the spear of Inisfail rolled before them, like a wreath of foam, the battle.

‘ The song ceased; but its sound was still in our ear, as the voice of the gale when its course is past. Our eyes were turned to the sea. On the distant wave arose a cloud. We knew the skiff of Innisfail. On its mast we saw the Cran-tara hung. “Spread,” said Comhal, “the white wings of my sails. On the waves we fly to help our friends.”

‘ Night met us, with its shades, on the deep. Waves lifted before us their white breasts, and in our sails was the roar of winds.

‘ The night of storms is dark; but a desert isle is nigh. It spreads its arms like my bow when bent, and its bosom, like the breast of my love, is calm. There let us wait the light; it is the place where mariners dream of dangers that are over.”

‘ Our course is to the bay of Botha. The bird of night howled above us from its grey rock. A mournful voice welcomed its fullen note from a cave. “It is the ghost of Dargo,” said Comhal; “Dargo, whom we lost returning from Lochlin’s wars.”

‘ Waves lifted their white heads among the clouds. Blue mountains rose between us and the shore. Dargo climbed the mast to look for Morven; but Morven he saw no more. The thong broke in his hand; and the waves, with all their foam,

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leapt

leapt over his red wandering hair. The fury of the blast drove our sails, and we lost sight of the chief. We raised the song of grief in his praise, and bade the ghosts of his fathers convey him to the place of their rest.

‘ But they heard us not, said Comhal; his ghost still haunts these dreary rocks. His course is not on sunny hill; on green mossy vales in Morven. Ye ghosts of woody Lochlin, who then pursued us in the storm; vain is your attempt, if you think to detain Dargo. Your numbers may be many, but you shall not prevail. Trenmor shall come from Morven’s clouds, and scatter, with his blast, your dim forms. Your curling mists, like the beard of the thistle of Ardden, shall fly before the ruler of the storm.—And thou, Dargo, shalt ride with him, on the skirt of his robe, and rejoice with the air-borne sons of thy people — Raise, Ullin, thy song, and praise his deeds: he will know thy voice, and rejoice in the sound of his fame. And if any of the ghosts of Lochlin are near, let them hear of the coming of Trenmor.

‘ Peace to thy soul, said Ullin, as he reared his voice; peace to thy soul, dweller of the caves of the rock; why so long in the land of strangers? Art thou forced to fight the battle of clouds with Lochlin’s ghosts, alone; or do the thousand thongs of air confine thee? Often, O Dargo, didst thou contend with a whole host; and, still, thy ghost maintains the unequal combat. But Tenmor shall soon come, and lift the broad shield and airy blade in thine aid. He will pursue the troubled ghosts of Lochlin before him, like the withered leaf of Malmor’s oak, when it is caught in the folds of the whirlwind.—Peace to thy soul, till then, O Dargo; and calm be thy rest, thou dweller of the rock, in the land of strangers.

‘ And dost thou bid me remain on this rock, bard of Comhal? will the warriors of Morven forsake their friend in the hour of danger? cried Dargo, as he descended from the steep of his cliff,

‘ Galchos knew the voice of Dargo, and made the glad reply he was wont when called to the chase; the chase of the dundbounding sons of the desert. Quick, as an arrow in the air, he springs over waves, His feet are scarce bathed in the deep. He leaps to the breast of Dargo.—The dim-twinkling stars looked, through the parted clouds, on their meeting of joy. It was like the embrace of friends, when they meet in the land of strangers, after the slow years of absence.

‘ How, said Comhal, is Dargo alive! how didst thou escape ocean’s floods, when they rolled their billows over thy head, and hid thee in their foam.

‘ The waves, said Dargo, drove me to this rock, after toiling a whole night in the stream. Seven times, since, has the moon wasted its light and grown again: but seven years are not so long on the brown heath of Morven. All the day I sat on that rock, humming the songs of our bards; while I listened to the hoarse

hoarse sound of the waves, or the hoarser screams of the fowls that rode on their top. And, in the night, I conversed with the ghosts and the owl; or stole on the sea-fowl that slept on the beachy rock.—Long, Comhal, was the time; for slow are the steps of the sun, and scarce-moving is the moon that shines on this lonely place.—But why these silent tears, what mean these pitying looks? They are not for my tale of wo; they are for Crimora's death. I know she is not: for I saw her ghost, sailing on the low-skirted mist, that hung on the beams of the moon; when they glittered, through the thin shower, on the smooth face of the deep. I saw my love, but her face was pale. The briny drops were trickling down her yellow locks, as if from ocean's bosom she had rose. The dark course of the tears was on her cheek, like the marks of the streams of old, when their floods overflowed the vale. I knew the form of Crimora. I guessed the fate of my love. I raised my voice, and invited her to my lonely rock. But the virgin-ghosts of Morven raised the faint song around the maid. It was like the dying fall of the breeze in the evening of autumn; when shadows slowly grow in Cona's vale, and soft sounds travel, through secret streams, in the gale of reeds. The listening waves, bending forward, stood still, and the screaming sea-fowl were quiet, while the tender air continued.

"Come," they said, "Crimora, to Morven; come to the hills of wood; where Sulmalda, the beauteous love of Trenmor, bends the airy bow, and pursues the half-viewless deer of the clouds. Come, Crimora, and forget thy grief in the land of our joy."

She followed; but left me a pitying look, and I thought I heard her sigh. It was like the distant wave on the lonely shore, when the mariner hears its moan from the mouth of his cave, and fears the coming storm. Still I listened; but the soft music ceased; the fair vision vanished. It vanished like the hunter's dream of love, when the sound of the horn, on the heath, awakes him. I cried; but they heard me not. They left me to mourn on my solitary rock; like the dove which his mate hath forsaken.—Since that time, my tears have always begun with the dawn of the morning, and descended with the shades of the night.—O when shall I see thee again, Crimora! tell me, Comhal, how died my love.

Thy love heard of thy fate, and three suns beheld her white hand support her bending head. The fourth saw her steps on the winding shore, looking for the cold corse of Dargo. The daughters of Morven beheld her from their mountains. They descended, in silence, along their blue streams. Their sighs lift their wandering hair, their soft hands wipe away the dimming tear.—They came, in silence, to comfort Crimora; but in her bed of ooze, they found the maid. They found her cold as a wreath of snow; fair as a swan on the shore of Lano.—The gray stone and green turf on Morven's shore, now compose Crimora's

dwelling. — The daughters of Morven mourned her fate, and the bards praised her beauty. — So may we, Dargo, live in renown ; so may our fate be found, when we moulder in the narrow house !”

This poem abounds with all that richness of imagery, that tenderness of sentiment, and those poetical beauties in general, which have been admired in the poems of Ossian. The thought with which the above quotation concludes, affords proof that the Celtic bard was strongly actuated with that noble thirst of fame, so conspicuous in the great Latin poets. A passage of a similar kind occurs a little after : ‘ O that my renown, like thine, might survive, when I myself am high on these clouds with Cremora !’ A poet whose heart glowed with so much generous ambition seems to have been destined by nature for immortality.

In respect of those translations we can only observe, that they are executed in the same easy and unaffected manner as those by Mr. Macpherson. For the satisfaction of Galic readers, Mr. Smith has occasionally inserted some specimens of the original ; and he informs us that he is ready to prepare the whole for the press, in as correct a form as possible, if he should be encouraged to it either by subscription or otherwise.

*Letters on Iceland. 8vo. 6s. boards. Robson.*

**D**R. Von Troil, the author of these Letters, is, we are informed, by birth a Swede, and has been promoted in his native country to several ecclesiastical places of honour and emolument. In the course of his travels, visiting England at the time when Mr. Banks was preparing to make a short excursion to the Western Isles and Iceland, he readily embraced the invitation of performing that voyage, which has afforded subject for the work now before us. The Letters contained in this version were first published in the original, at Upsal, in 1777, and soon after translated into German.

The first Letter is addressed to professor Bergman, and treats of the effects of fire in Iceland. The object particularly mentioned is mount Heckla, the celebrated volcano of the North, to view which the travellers undertook a journey of about three hundred and sixty English miles, over an uninterrupted tract of lava. Dr. Von Troil informs us, that they had the pleasure of being the first who ever reached the summit of this volcano. The cause of this is partly founded in superstition, and partly in the extreme difficulty of the ascent, before the last discharge of fire. The mountain is upwards of five thou-  
sand

sand foot high, and separates at the top into three points, of which that in the middle is the highest. The most inconsiderable part of the mountain consists of lava; the rest of ashes, with hard solid stones thrown from the craters, and some pumice stones, of which the travellers found only a small piece, with a little native sulphur. Among many other openings, four were particularly remarkable. Of one of those the lava had taken the form of chimney-stacks half broken down; from another, water had streamed; of the third, all the stones were red as brick; and from the fourth the lava had burst forth into a stream, which was divided at some distance into three branches. The travellers had not the fortune to see Heckla throw up fire, but they observed sufficient traces of its burning inwardly; for on the upper half of it, which was generally covered with snow four or five inches deep, they frequently saw spots without any snow; and on the highest point, where Fahrenheit's thermometer was at  $24^{\circ}$  in the air, it rose to  $150^{\circ}$  when it was set down on the ground. In some little holes the heat was so great, that they could not discover the degree of it with a small pocket thermometer. It is not known whether, since the year 1693, Heckla has been burning till 1766, when it began to throw up flames on the first of April, and destroyed the country many miles round. Besides Heckla, the mountains of Myvatn and Kattlegia have become known in the present century for their violent eruptions; the former between the years 1730 and 1740, and the latter in 1756.

Iceland is also remarkable for abounding with hot springs of water, of which we meet with the following description.

\* They have different degrees of warmth, and are on that account divided by the inhabitants themselves into laugar, warm baths, and huerer, or jets d'eaux; the first are found in several other parts of Europe, though I do not believe that they are ever employed to the same purposes in any other place: that is to say, the inhabitants do not bathe in them here merely for their health, but they are likewise the occasion for a scene of gallantry. Poverty prevents here the lover from making presents to his fair one, and nature presents no flowers of which elsewhere garlands are made: it is therefore customary, that instead of all this, the swain perfectly cleanses one of these baths, which is afterwards honoured with the visits of his bride. The other kind of springs mentioned above deserves more attention. I have seen a great number of them; but will only say something of three of the most remarkable. Near Laugervatn, a small lake of about a mile in circumference, which is about two days journey distance from Heckla, I saw the first hot jet d'eau; and I must confess that it was one of the most beautiful sights I ever beheld. The morning was uncommonly clear, and the

the sun had already begun to gild the tops of the neighbouring mountains; it was so perfect a calm, that the lake on which some swans were swimming was as smooth as a looking-glass; and round about it arose, in eight different places, the steam of the hot springs, which lost itself high in the air.

Water was spouting from all these springs; but one in particular continually threw up a column from 18 to 24 feet high, and from 6 to 8 feet diameter the water was extremely hot. A piece of mutton, and some salmon trout was boiled in it; as likewise a ptarmigan, which was almost boiled to pieces in six minutes, and tasted excellently. I wish it was in my power, Sir, to give you such a description of this place as it deserves; but I fear mine would always remain inferior in point of expression. So much is certain, at least, nature never drew from any one a more cheerful homage to her great Creator than I here paid him.

At Reikum was another spout of the same sort; the water of which, I was assured, arose 60 or 70 feet perpendicular height some years ago; but a fall of earth having covered the whole opening, it now only spouted between 54 and 60 feet sideways. We found a great many petrified leaves in this place, as likewise some native sulphur, of which too the water had a much stronger taste than any where else.

I have reserved the most remarkable water-spout for the end; the description of which will appear as incredible to you as it did to me, could I not assure you that it is all perfectly true, as I would not aver any thing but what I have seen myself. At Geyser, not far from Skallholt, one of the episcopal sees in Iceland, a most extraordinary large jet d'eau is to be seen, with which the celebrated water-works at Marley and St. Cloud, and at Gassel, and Herrenhausen, near Hanover, can hardly be compared. One sees here, within the circumference of half a mile, forty or fifty boiling springs together, which, I believe, all proceed from one and the same reservoir. In some the water is perfectly clear, in others thick and clayey; in some, where it passes through a fine ochre, it is tinged red as scarlet; and in others, where it flows over a paler clay, it is white as milk.

The water spouts up from all, from some continually, from others only at intervals. The largest spring, which is in the middle, engaged our attention particularly the whole day, which we spent here from six in the morning till seven at night. The aperture through which the water arose, and the depth of which I cannot determine, was nineteen feet in diameter; round the top of it is a basin, which, together with the pipe, has the form of a cauldron; the margin of the basin is upwards of nine feet one inch higher than the conduit, and its diameter is of fifty-six feet. Here the water does not spout continually, but only by intervals several times a day; and as I was informed by the

the people in the neighbourhood, in bad rainy weather, higher than at other times.

On the day that we were there, the water spouted at ten different times, from six in the morning till eleven A. M. each time, to the height of between five and ten fathoms; till then the water had not risen above the margin of the pipe, but now it began by degrees to fill the upper basin, and at last ran over. The people who were with us told us, that the water would soon spout up much higher than it had till then done, and this appeared very credible to us. To determine its height therefore, with the utmost accuracy, Dr. Lind, who had accompanied us on this voyage in the capacity of an astronomer, set up his quadrant.

Soon after four o'clock we observed that the earth began to tremble in three different places, as likewise the top of a mountain, which was about three hundred fathoms distant from the mouth of the spring. We also frequently heard a subterraneous noise like the discharge of a cannon; and immediately after a column of water spouted from the opening, which at a great height divided itself into several rays, and, according to the observations made with the quadrant, was ninety-two feet high. Our great surprize at this uncommon force of the air and fire was yet increased, when many stones, which we had thrown into the aperture, were thrown up with the spouting water. You can easily conceive, Sir, with how much pleasure we spent the day here; and indeed I am not much surprized, that a people so much inclined to superstition as the Icelanders are, imagine this to be the entrance of hell; for this reason they seldom pass one of these openings without spitting into it; and, as they say, *uti fændens mun*, into the devil's mouth.\*

The second Letter is addressed to the royal librarian Mr. G. Jorwell, and treats of Iceland in general. Though there is hardly any other country so little favoured by nature, and where she appears in so dreadful a form, we are told that there are in Iceland no less than sixty thousand inhabitants.\* The author informs us that the natives are of an honest disposition, but so serious and sullen, that he hardly remembers to have seen any one of them laugh. They are not so strong as might be supposed, and much less handsome. Their houses, which are built of lava, and thatched with turf, are so small that they hardly afford room to turn one's self in them. The windows, instead of glass, are composed of thin membranes of certain animals. They make no use of chimneys, as they never light a fire, except to dress their victuals, at which times they lay the turf on the ground. Their food consists chiefly of dried fish, sour butter, of which they are extremely fond, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. They are well provided with cattle, which are generally without horns. Four or  
five

five centuries ago, the Icelanders were celebrated on account of their poetry and knowledge in history; but during the whole time that our author was in that country, he got a sight of only four or five Icelandic manuscripts. We are informed, however, that the chief amusement of the natives, in their leisure hours, is to recount to one another the history of their country.

The third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth Letters are written to chevalier Ihre, and employed on the following subjects, viz. the physical constitution of the country; of the arrival of the Norwegians, the government, and laws in Iceland; ecclesiastical affairs; of the character and manner of life of the Icelanders; of their dress; and of their houses and buildings. The ninth Letter, addressed to Mrs. Carlsoa, treats of the food of the Icelanders; and the tenth, to chevalier Ihre, of the employment of the Icelanders, and their chronology, which is rude and imperfect.

The eleventh Letter is devoted to chevalier Bach, and contains an account of the diseases in Iceland. We are informed that infants are not suckled more than two or three days, and afterwards brought up with cow's milk, which, in times of dearth, is mixed with flour and water. One seldom meets with any of the natives above fifty or sixty years old; and the greater part are attacked about the middle of their age by many grievous complaints. It is remarkable, that among the female sex, who there, as almost every where else, live to a greater age than the men, those particularly attain to an advanced life who have had many children.

Among the diseases that are prevalent, the scurvy is the most common.

' In some, we are told, it makes its appearance in the same manner as with us, but in others it produces the most dreadful symptoms, and is then called *liktraad*, or leprosy, which, however, differs from that horrid disease so common in the East. Its first appearances are, swellings in the hands and feet, and sometimes also in other parts of the body: the skin becomes shining and of a bluish cast, the hair falls off, the sight, taste, smell, and feeling are weakened, and often quite lost; biles appear on the arms, legs, and face; respiration becomes difficult, and the breath foetid; aching pains are felt in all the joints, a breaking out spreads over the whole body, and is at last converted into wounds, which generally terminate in death.

' The Icelanders make use of antiscorbutic decoctions, likewise baths, with turnips boiled in them; but chiefly mercurial remedies, by means of which the disease may be removed in its beginning. This disease is not contagious, but very obstinate; and



and it is remarkable, that two generations may be entirely free from it, when it shall appear in the third. It does not always prove mortal, though many are tormented with it twenty or thirty years.'

The circumstance of this disorder's being cured by mercurial medicines, which are found to aggravate the genuine scurvy, affords convincing proof that the Icelandic disease, at the beginning, is essentially different from a scorbutic affection of the fluids. The venereal disease was not known in Iceland till the year 1753:

The four subsequent Letters are addressed to the author's principal correspondent, the chevalier Ihre; giving an account of fishing and fowling, and the breed of cattle in Iceland; of the trade of the inhabitants; of printing; and of the remains of antiquity.

The seventeenth Letter is addressed to baron Axel Lejonhufvud, and treats of the Icelandic poetry. The author observes that it is difficult to determine the true nature of the ancient Icelandic poetry; but it appears that the versification most frequently used was divided into stanzas. Each of those consisted of four couplets, which were composed of two hemistichs, each containing six syllables. It was not allowed to augment this number, except in cases of the greatest necessity. In the Icelandic poetry two other circumstances were also requisite, viz. words with the same initial letters, and words of the same sound. The following lines are inserted as an example.

‘ Auður londum for undann  
Alvaldur fa er gaf scaldum  
Hann feck gagn at gunne,  
Gunntrör da slög mærgum,  
Slydurtungur let slingra  
Sverd leiks reigenn ferdar,  
Sende grammur ad grundu  
Gullwarpathi snarpann.’

The next five Letters are addressed to professor Bergman, on the volcanoes, mount Heckla, the hot spouting water-springs, and the pillars of basalt.

The three remaining Letters in the volume are written to Dr. Troil by his correspondents. One of them is from chevalier Ihre, relative to the Edda; another is from chevalier Bach, on the Icelandic scurvy. The chevalier expresses the same opinion which we hinted above, that the prevailing disease in Iceland is not the scurvy. He thinks it clear from the account of Mr. Peterfen, that it is the elephantiasis, or leprosy. The concluding Letter is from professor Bergman, on the

the effects of fire, both at the volcanoes and the hot springs; and also on the basalts.

These Letters contain a more particular account of Iceland than is any where else to be met with; and as the author's information was not only obtained with the knowledge of the gentlemen who accompanied him on the voyage, but was communicated to correspondents who were eminent for their learning, we may be assured that the representation which he has given is perfectly consistent with truth; not to mention, that, independent of every collateral or presumptive evidence, his own reputation for integrity and honour must render such an inference unquestionable.

*A Treatise on the Military Science, which comprehends the Grand Operations of War, and General Rules for conducing an Army in the Field, founded upon Principles for the Improvement of the same. With occasional Notes. By Thomas Simes, Esq. 4to. 13s. boards. Almon.*

THE work begins with the preparations before taking the field, and the march of an army on leaving its quarters to go into cantonments. The author observes that the quarter-master general, his deputy, or an able engineer should reconnoitre the country and navigable rivers, to obtain a just knowledge of them and the enemy, before he ventures to form his routes. If strongest in cavalry, plain and open ground should be preferred; but if the force consist chiefly of infantry, a situation full of enclosures, ditches, morasses, and eminences should be chosen. It requires no acquaintance with the military art to perceive that those directions are founded in the justest principles; and the same may be remarked of the following:

\* The time for an army to march out of winter-quarters, is always regulated by the plan which the general has formed for the ensuing campaign. They leave them when very early when they are at a distance from the country where the war is to be carried on; but later, if, by their situation, the operations of the campaign can be commenced after having made two or three marches: but whether, by the situation of the quarters, the army is enabled to enter immediately on the campaign, or whether it must be first of all cantoned, the magazines should be so situated as always to be within reach, especially in that early season of the year, when there can be no forage upon the ground, and consequently the cavalry must be subsisted out of the magazines.

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• The magazines ought to be distributed about in different parts, that the troops may have less way to go for their forage.

• The general is to issue his orders to the intendant of the army for whatever regards the magazines, and to mark those places to him where he should have them established; and for the greater security of these places, there must be troops posted in them; the roads should be good, and the communications well guarded, by which means the convoys will arrive in safety.

• The distribution of the magazines should be regulated by the movements which the general foresees the army will make on leaving its quarters, supposing it leaves them when there is only dry forage; but if the army is in an enemy's country, and their forage upon the ground, it is certainly better to reserve the magazine entire, by which not only great trouble will be avoided in transporting the forage, but also a great expence saved.

• Of what nature soever the country may be (an enemy's country is supposed) it should be foraged in front as much as possible, in order to reserve that which is in the rear, that, when the campaign is over, it may be laid up in barns; &c. if this precaution is not attended to, the army will be destitute of forage at its return, and will in course be obliged to draw it from home, and consume those magazines which were before spared; consequently there will be nothing saved, the expence will only have been deferred, but it will be increased by transporting the forage from the magazines to the army.

• The forming of the magazines should never be delayed till the time for opening the campaign approaches. The intendant, pursuant to the general's order, should lay in the provisions during the winter, and distribute them in the frontier towns, by which means they can easily be transported to whatever place the general may order. By these precautions, the general will not only avoid the inconveniency of being obliged to wait till there is forage upon the ground, but he will be enabled to be the first in the field.

• The same precautions should also be taken with respect to the artillery; whether for that wanted for a siege, if it is intended to open the campaign by that operation, or whether for that which is necessary in the course of a campaign, it should be assembled upon the glacis of the frontier towns, or rather upon that of the conquered places; the more it is within reach of readily joining, the sooner the operations will be commenced.

The author next delivers prudential injunctions respecting magazines, subsistence, &c. for all the parts of the army.

He thence proceeds to treat of camps in offensive war; observing that to take an advantageous position for an army; to make choice of a spot, that by its situation is strongly secured;

cured; to establish a camp there, and to be also able to have the army within distance of marching easily to the enemy, without fear of being molested; in short, to throw such difficulties in the enemy's way as may prevent the army from being harrassed, is one of the most essential parts of knowledge for a general. The various circumstances relative to camps in offensive war are afterwards particularly considered; as are likewise those respecting camps in defensive war.

The next subject that occurs is the attack of intrenched camps. This is followed by a variety of remarks, all tending to prove, that to know how to encamp well, and constantly to practise it, is one of the most necessary branches of the military art. Mr. Simes informs us, he has been convinced, by reading the Greek and Roman histories, that those nations owed as much of their conquests to their well encamping, as to their excellent military discipline, and their valour.

The author afterwards makes a variety of judicious observations on generals, campaigns, battles, &c. which are followed by remarks on accidents, and unexpected events in war.

The particulars next considered are, glance of the eye, and signs; the staff of the army; the provost-martial general; straggling, marauding, or plundering the country; waggon-master general; marches in the neighbourhood of an enemy, and of consequences, &c.; the march of the artillery; of parking the artillery; of the Prussian park of artillery; with remarks upon artillery and carriage.

After treating of those subjects with great precision, Mr. Simes considers the march of a detachment of infantry and dragoons, in an open country, divided by rivers; and next, of the march of a detachment of infantry and light cavalry in a woody and mountainous country; of detachments, or parties of light-armed cavalry; directions for the conduct of officers on grand guards, out-posts and parties, in case of an attack; of the night-march of the cavalry; instructions for an officer commanding a reconnoitring detachment.

Immediately subsequent to the articles above mentioned, is the manner of conducting a retreat. The performing of this properly being considered as a mark of great generalship, we shall lay before our readers Mr. Simes's observations upon it.

• That which is done in sight of an active enemy, who pursues with a superior force, makes a part of my present subject; and is, with reason, looked upon as the glory of the profession. It is a manœuvre the most delicate, and the properest to display the prudence, genius, courage and address of an officer who

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commands; the histories of all ages testify it; and historians have never been so lavish of eulogiums as on the subject of the brilliant retreats of our heroes. If it is important, it is no less difficult to regulate, on the variety of circumstances, each of which demands a different principal, and almost an endless detail. Hence a good retreat is esteemed, by experienced generals, that master-piece of one.

In retreats, all military operations present a difficulty of choice, and require deep consideration in the person to whose conduct they are entrusted; there are still more difficult than others, and where the least oversight, either in the disposition of the troops, or the exactness of the evolutions, may be productive of an entire defeat.

A general certainly discourages his own troops, and animates his enemies, by retiring out of the field without fighting; yet as this sometimes must necessarily happen, it will be most proper to consider how to perform it with honour and safety.

In the first place, your men must not imagine you retire to decline an action, but to believe your retreat an artifice to draw the enemy into an ambuscade, or more advantageous situation, where you may easier defeat them, in case they follow you: for troops who perceive their general's despair of success, are prone to flight. You must be cautious lest the enemy should discover your retreat, and fall immediately upon you: to avoid which danger, the cavalry are generally posted in the front of the infantry, to conceal their motions and retreat from the enemy. The first divisions are drawn off first, the others following in their turns; the last maintain their ground till the rest have marched off, and then file off themselves, and join them in a leisurely and regular succession. Some generals have judged it best to make their retreat in the night, after reconnoitring their routs, and thus gained so much ground, that the enemy, not discovering their movement till day-break, were not able to come up with them. The light infantry was also sent forward to possess the eminences, under which the army might instantly retire with safety, and the enemy, in case they pursue, be exposed to the light infantry, masters of the heights, seconded by the cavalry. A rash and inconsiderate pursuit, exposes an army to the greatest danger possible, that of falling into ambuscades, and the hands of troops ready for their reception.

For as the temerity of an army is increased, and their caution lessened by the pursuit of a flying enemy, this is the most favourable opportunity for snares; and the greater the security, the greater the danger. Troops when unprepared, at their meals, fatigued after a march, when their horses are feeding, and in short, when they believe themselves most secure, are generally most liable to a surprize. All risks of this sort are to be carefully avoided, and all opportunities taken by distressing the enemy by such methods. Neither numbers nor courage avail

in misfortunes of this nature. A general if defeated in a pitched battle, though skill and conduct have the greatest share in the decision, may, in his defence, throw the blame on fortune: but if he has suffered himself to be surprised or drawn into the snares of his enemy, he has no excuse for his fault, because he might have avoided such a misfortune by taken proper precautions, and employing spies, on whose intelligence he could depend. When the enemy begin to retreat, the following snare is usually laid; a small body of cavalry is ordered to pursue them the direct road, at the same time a strong detachment is secretly sent another way, to conceal itself on their route. When the cavalry have over-taken the infantry, they make some faint attacks and retire. The enemy, imagining the danger past, and that they have escaped the snare, neglect their order, and march without regularity; when the detachment, privately sent to intercept them, seizing the opportunity, falls upon them unexpectedly, and destroys them with ease. Many generals, when obliged to retreat through woods, send forward parties to possess the defiles, and difficult passes, to avoid ambuscades; and to stop up the roads with barricades of felled trees, to secure themselves from being pursued and attacked in the rear. In short, both sides have equal opportunities of surprising or laying ambuscades on the march. The army which retreats, leaves troops behind for that purpose, posted in convenient valleys, large brush wood, or mountains covered with wood, and if the enemy falls into the snare, returns immediately to their assistance. The army that pursues, detaches different parties of light troops to march before, through bye-roads, and intercept the enemy, who are thus surrounded and attacked at once in front and rear. The flying army may return and fall on the enemy while asleep in the night, and the pursuing army may, though the distance is great, surprize the adversary by forced marches. The former endeavour, at the passage of a river, to destroy such part of the enemy's army, as have already passed, while separated from the rest by the channel of the river; and the pursuers hasten their march to fall upon these bodies of the enemy that have not yet crossed.

Our author observes, that generals, in war, think a victory incomplete, unless the enemy be so straitened, or so entirely surrounded by numbers, as to have no possibility of escape. But in such situations, where no hope remains, fear itself will arm an enemy, and despair inspire courage. This remark is supported by the most accurate observations on human nature.

The next objects of attention are, the retreat of a detachment of infantry and dragoons, in an open country, divided by rivers; the retreat of a detachment of cavalry in an open country; precautions to be taken, when obliged to establish quarters in a woody and mountainous country; precautions  
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for securing the cavalry's quarters, in a plain covered country ; of the vigilance of each commandant in his own quarter ; the manœuvres to be opposed to the enemy's false alarms ; of changing an order of battle on a plain ; of the measures to be taken for the junction of two armies ; how to act in detachment with a force superior to that of the enemy ; of lines and retrenchments ; attack of lines or retrenchments. Speaking of the attack of retrenchments, the author gives it as his own opinion, that if retrenchments have no cannon, he most certainly would attack in several columns with rapidity ; if cannon, in line of battle.

Mr. Simes then treats of redoubts, and their excellence in orders of battle ; of the grand manœuvre ; of the column of attack, or plesion ; passing of rivers ; in what manner to prevent passing of rivers ; of convoys, and of the attack of them ; of detachments for forming a chain of green forage ; of detachments for forming a chain of dry forage ; of the attack of green and dry forage ; of spies and guides ; of counter-signs ; of ambuscades.

After reciting the manner in which Scipio suppressed and punished a sedition that happened in the Roman army, the author treats of methods to prevent mutiny in an army ; of hospitals ; of what relates to the regiments ; of cavalry ; of infantry ; of forming troops for action, and their manner of engaging ; of attacking and defending military posts, &c. of dispositions necessary to maintain a party in a post ; of the manner of fortifying villages and churches ; of the manner of attacking a village ; of the attack of a village surrounded with hedges and gardens ; of the attack of small towns, castles, &c. of the manner of fortifying a mill or farm house ; of the attack of a place ; of the attack of a place situate on the side of a great river ; of the taking of towns by surprize.

The author then relates how Philip rendered himself master of Princess by stratagem ; with a remarkable circumstance that happened to Gonsalvo, who was lieutenant-general to Spinola, and governor of Milan, in the campaign of 1621 ; with another military anecdote. He afterwards gives directions how to calculate the proper quantity of each material for a small redoubt ; treating next of the attack of a redoubt ; of the passage of a ditch full of water ; of ways to counter-act different contrivances ; of the construction of soughasses ; how to reconnoitre a post ; of the march of detachments to posts ; the advantage of night attacks, and the precautions to be taken in quarters ; care and precautions to be taken in towns, villages, and places of refreshment ; of other precautions and measures for night-marches, attention to fire-arms, and the essential

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customs for retreats; with a conclusion on attacking and defending of posts, &c.

After the above enumeration, it is almost unnecessary to observe that Mr. Simes has given an ample detail of the military science in all its departments. If we add that he has also treated the subject with great judgement, as well as perspicuity, we only bestow the approbation which is strictly due to the clear arrangement, the useful remarks, and the extensive knowledge so fully displayed in the work.

*Observations on Fevers, especially those of the Continued Type; and on the Scarlet Fever attended with Ulcerated Sore-Throat, as it appeared at Newcastle upon Tyne in the Year 1778. By John Clarke, M. D. 8vo. 6s. boards. Cadell.*

**A**BOUT seven years ago, we reviewed Dr. Clark's Observations on the Diseases in long Voyages to hot Countries, particularly on those which prevail in the East Indies\*. It thence appeared that he had paid great attention towards ascertaining the causes and cure of diseases; and we are therefore glad to find that he has extended his remarks to such as prevail in our own country.

The author sets out with delineating the general character of fevers, as marked by chillness or shivering, a subsequent frequency of the pulse, preternatural heat, and weakness of voluntary motion, independent of local inflammation, specific eruptions, or other primary diseases which produce symptomatic fever.

In the second section, he considers the difference of fevers, and censures, with great justice, the numerous classes into which they have been commonly divided. He informs us, that after several years careful attention to the symptoms and nature of fevers, in different climates, he has never been able to follow authors through their multiplicity of distinctions; and he is convinced; that, although many varieties happen according to constitution, season, situation, and climate, yet every where fever is essentially the same; consisting only of one genus, which seems to comprehend no more than three species, viz. intermittent, remittent, and continued fevers. This opinion, he thinks, may be clearly ascertained by taking a view of the essential symptoms of those species of fever; and he proceeds to institute such a comparison.

According to the above division, Dr. Clark rejects the different, though also triple distinction, of fevers, which some

\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxxv. p. 260.



modern writers have endeavoured to establish, viz. the inflammatory, the nervous, and the putrid. His reasons for dissenting from those characteristics are contained in the following quotation.

‘ If we nearly examine these supposed genera, we shall find that they only express different states of fever; and that the symptoms which characterize them, equally attend fevers of the intermittent, and remittent type.

‘ The inflammatory fever, for example, is defined to consist in intense heat, frequent, strong, hard, and full pulse, with high coloured urine. Many fevers, in their incipient state, are attended with these symptoms, which however prevail more in the paroxysms of intermittent, and remittent fevers, than in those of the continued type. Even the depressing powers of contagion do not always guard against symptoms of strong action of the heart, and arterial system. Gillchrist, describing the nervous fever, observes, “ that in some the seizure, and symptoms, on the first days were violent: such as vomiting, nausea, head-ach, full, strong, and hard pulse, heat, and redness of the eyes.” Except by the tremors of the hands, even the jail or hospital fever is not to be distinguished from any common fever, and the pulse in the beginning varies in strength, and in fulness. Sir John Pringle, in this fever, and Huxham, in the putrid fever, advise bleeding, to moderate the strong action of the vessels. For these reasons, whatever attention this state of the fever may merit in practice, as it equally attends intermittent, remittent, and continued fevers, it ought not be admitted as constituting any generic difference.

‘ The term inflammatory, in my opinion, ought only to be applied to fever when it is the concomitant of inflammation; and I must confess, that, however contrary the assertion may be to the authority of physicians of the first eminence, I have never met with an inflammatory fever, independent of local affection. The very name, as it leads to bleeding and evacuations, ought to be admitted with caution.’

The fizy appearance of the blood having been considered as a proof that fevers were inflammatory, Dr. Clark cites experiments, and instances, from different writers, to invalidate this doctrine, and to shew that a buffy coat of the blood has been frequently observed in diseases quite the reverse of inflammation. He informs us that himself has seen the blood thus covered in a patient who died of an encysted dropy, and in another who laboured under the ulcerated sore-throat; but in both those instances the crassamentum was of a loose texture. He has also frequently given the bark, with success, in fevers where the blood, previous to his attendance, had been pronounced to be very fizy.

It seems now to be fully ascertained, that the fizy appearance of the blood is not a certain criterion of inflammation, and unless joined with other symptoms, which more uniformly characterize inflammation, can be of little use in directing the method of cure.

The author adduces the following remarks, in support of his division of fevers above intimated.

‘ When continued fevers are attended with a weak pulse, prostration of strength and spirits, and much disorder in the nervous system, they have been denominated nervous; and when symptoms of a dissolved state of the blood appear, they have been called putrid. Every symptom characteristic of the nervous fever, I have seen attend remittents of hot climates; and even all continued fevers, in this country, are, in general, sooner or later succeeded by this state of fever. And in some fevers, although from the beginning the fluids have appeared in a dissolved state, yet putrescency, is more frequently an effect of fever than a cause, and equally attends intermittent, remittent, and continued fevers. There appears, therefore, great impropriety in confining the terms to continued fevers; and still more so in establishing them as different genera.

‘ In other diseases were we to form distinct genera, from the different states of the fluids, and other attending circumstances, as has been the case in continued fevers, we should very much multiply distempers which are essentially the same. The small pox, for example, is almost always attended with fever, which, in some patients, is accompanied with strong action in the vessels; in others with symptoms of debility and nervous distress; and in others with those which denote a tendency in the fluids to putrefaction. Nay even the same patient (which is also the case in continued fevers) will, in a few days, go through the different states of fever which attend this disease: yet every physician knows that the distemper proceeds from the same specific contagion: and that these varieties express no generic difference.

‘ It is evident from what has been advanced, that all primary fevers are attended with the same essential symptoms; and that the only difference is, that, in some of them, the intermissions and remissions are perfect; in others so obscure, as justly to entitle them to the name of continued.

‘ They likewise differ from each other, in being attended, sometimes, with strength and activity of the vascular system; sometimes with symptoms of debility; and sometimes with those which denote a tendency in the fluids to putrefaction. It is therefore reasonable to conclude, as the great Boerhaave does on another occasion, that “those diseases, though infinitely various with regard to their symptoms, do not arise from so complex an origin, nor require so great a variety in their remedies or method of cure.”

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In the third section, Dr. Clark treats of the cure of continued fevers. He observes that they are frequently, in the beginning, attended with strong action of the vascular system, which is evident from the following symptoms: the pulse is quick, strong, hard, and full; the heat of the body intense; the urine high coloured, and often small in quantity; and the senses and spirits remain tolerably clear.

He observes, in the next place, that continued fevers are more frequently, from the beginning, or soon after their formation, attended with debility and depression of the vital powers; this state being marked by the following symptoms: the pulse is weak, quick, and frequently unequal; the urine commonly pale; the heat not very intense; and the strength and spirits prostrated; watchfulness and delirium are added, and, as the disease advances, the latter terminates in coma. Subfultus tendinum ensue; the stools and urine often glide off involuntarily; and the patient is apt to faint on the least motion.

The author remarks, in the third place, that both the preceding states of fever are frequently succeeded by, or attended with, a disposition in the fluids to putrefaction, which is distinguished by the following symptoms: the tongue becomes dry, and black; the breath and stools fetid; petechiæ, purple or livid spots appear; hæmorrhages happen from the nose, and various parts; and, before death, the body, very frequently, emits a cadaverous smell.

Continued fevers, which are propagated by infectious miasmata, in particular states of the atmosphere, besides being accompanied with the usual symptoms of fever, are also attended with those which denote pneumonic inflammation.

It is observable, that in the several states of continued fevers described by Dr. Clark, he admits the same distinctions, which have been considered by some former writers as constituting so many kinds of the disease; and he therefore ascribes to every continued fever, when permitted to run its course, the same symptoms, in uniform succession, which others appear to have regarded as stationary, and universally characteristic through the whole disease.

The following is the method of cure which our author has found most successful in continual fevers.

\* I. In the first state of fever, I give emetic tartar in such doses as to vomit gently, and afterwards to open the belly, directing the patient to drink moderately of any tepid, diluting drink most agreeable to his taste: by this means the stomach and intestines are cleansed; perspiration or a sweat produced: and the velocity of the circulating fluids diminished. If, how-

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ever, excess of heat, quickness and strength of pulse continue, it will be proper, for some days, to give the antimonial in such a manner, as to keep the secretions open: and, should it fail to operate downwards, a decoction of tamarinds, a solution of manna, or Rochelle salts ought to be added.

As soon as the strong action of the vessels is reduced (for, if called in the beginning of this state of fever, we ought not to wait till the symptoms of debility ensue) the bark should be given, in as large doses as the stomach of the patient would bear, without regard to the remissions or exacerbations. If this method be timely applied, I can say with much confidence, that the disease will seldom terminate in the other states of fever; or, in other words, become nervous, or putrid.

In some cases of continued fever, the affair, after the use of antimonials, may be trusted to nature: I have frequently done so, when the disease has shewn no disorder of the nervous system, and where there has been no suspicion of its having arisen from contagion. But, in doubtful cases, after the fever has continued to the end of the fourth day, it is the safest method to commence immediately with the bark; for while the disease continues, there is no certainty, by any other method, to guard against the alarming and fatal symptoms, which frequently and unexpectedly come on.

I am sensible that, in the beginning of fevers, venesection is the most powerful means of abating the force and activity of the vascular system: and that it has been universally recommended by physicians in this state of fever. But as all fevers, at least such as have occurred in my practice, are in general soon succeeded by debility, or symptoms which denote a tendency to putrefaction in the fluids, this evacuation ought to be used with caution. There may be some cases of fever, indeed, that may require venesection in the beginning, particularly when there are evident signs of topical determinations of blood to the head, lungs, or any other part; when the patient is vigorous and plethoric, and when the disease derives its origin from other causes than contagion. The exhibition of tartar emetic, in the manner already directed, will however, in a great measure, supersede the necessity of venesection. In seven years practice, I have only had occasion to direct this evacuation twice in continued fevers, unaccompanied with symptoms of local affection; and I can add, that I never lost a patient from the omission.

II. In the second state of continued fever attended with debility and depression of the vital powers; when called in the beginning, if the skin be hot and dry, I give antimonials as directed in the former state; but never continue them so long as to produce profuse evacuations. But when the patient has been much weakened, or the disease advanced, antimonials are unsafe and ought to be omitted entirely: and with respect to other  
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medicines, I place the whole stress of the cure on the Peruvian bark, without waiting for remissions.

\* III. In the last state of fever, which is accompanied with symptoms of putrefaction, the bark ought to be given in very liberal doses, together with the vegetable or vitriolic acid, ripe fruits, wine, and other antiseptic liquors. The use of the bark in this state of fever, is so agreeable to the established practice, that there is not the least occasion to insist upon its efficacy.

\* If the above method of cure be employed in the different states of fevers, during the first week, it will very frequently remove them. But, after they are once confirmed, they will, for the most part, run their course in spite of every medicine. All that can be expected from the bark, in such cases, is to obviate debility; counteract putrefaction; and to prevent fatal determinations to the viscera; the chief causes of death in fevers.

\* Distressing symptoms frequently arise in the course of fevers, which may require a variety of remedies; however, in the general cure of fevers, I place great confidence in, and use as auxiliaries along with the bark, the following articles, viz. the pediluvium; the free admission of cold air; taking the patients out of bed; light cloathing; keeping the belly regular; and, in some cases, the use of opiates and blisters.

\* In the beginning of fevers, while no great debility prevails; especially when the skin is dry, or the head affected, nothing is attended with more advantage, than the use of the pediluvium, and every night, at least, the patient's legs ought to be immersed in warm water. This method not only prevents delirium, but frequently removes it, after it has taken place. When the patient is not able to sit up, warm fomentations ought to be applied to the legs and feet.

\* The chambers of the sick ought to be kept exceeding clean, and, at all times, well ventilated; and as soon as the strong action of the vessels is abated, cold air ought to be freely admitted by the doors and windows.

\* The patient should be allowed to get up, and sit out of bed at pleasure; and even when symptoms of debility, or putrefaction prevail, great advantages are derived from taking the patients out of bed: but in such cases it will be always prudent, to place them gently upon a couch in an horizontal posture, in order to prevent the risk of fainting.

\* Opiates, although they produce the most happy effects in some cases of fever, yet their use must be admitted with caution. When fevers are attended with debility, and nocturnal exacerbations with delirium, opiates are very proper. When the skin is dry, I generally combine the opium with emetic tartar, or give it in the form of Dover's powder, at bed time. Opiates also are the only remedies to be depended upon, when a diarrhoea is not critical; or when the bark runs off by stool.

\* With respect to blisters, I am very far from being an advocate for their general use; and believe that, even in nervous fevers,

fevers, where they have been most universally recommended, they too frequently produce bad effects. If the method of cure which has already been advised be early adopted, there will be, very seldom, any occasion for their application. But when fevers have been neglected, and delirium comes on, attended with weak pulse, and a dangerous comatose disposition, I have frequently seen a blister, applied to the head, attended with the best effects. They are also peculiarly serviceable, when fevers are complicated with pleuritic or peripneumonic stitches.

'In every state of fever the diet ought to consist of farinaceous substances, such as gruel, panado, &c. and both when the action of the vessels is strong, and also when there is a tendency in the fluids to putrefaction, ripe fruits of all kinds ought to be allowed. Whilst the activity of the vascular system continues, the drinks should be taken moderately warm: but when symptoms of debility or putrescency prevail, the drinks ought to be cold, and acidulated with lemon juice, currant jelly, or any other vegetable acid; to which a sufficient proportion of generous wine must be added. In such circumstances, malt liquors also, as they are powerful resisters of putrefaction, constitute a very proper drink. And when the patients long for cold water, it ought to be allowed: and every other inordinate craving should be indulged.'

In support of this method of cure we meet with twenty-eight cases, which are distinctly related.

The fourth section contains an account of the continued fever that prevailed in Newcastle, in the latter part of the year 1777; being a variety of continued fever, respecting which, Dr. Clark thinks, sufficient notice has not been taken by physicians.

After accurately describing this fever, the author relates the method of cure which proved most successful. We are told, that in the beginning of the disease, emetic tartar, given in such doses as to vomit effectually, and afterwards in such a manner as to produce a gentle sweat, with elix. paregoric. to appease the cough, sometimes removed the fever at once. But after the disease was confirmed, although antimonials, when the patient's strength would admit of their use, were still serviceable, yet the only medicine which proved of singular advantage was the Peruvian bark, in as large doses as the stomach would retain. Twenty cases, of the success of this practice, are also related.

In a second part of the volume, Dr. Clark treats largely of the scarlet fever attended with ulcerated sore throat, as it appeared at Newcastle in 1778. To a history of this fever, the method of cure, and several cases, the author has subjoined a comparison between it and the disease of the same title, which has lately prevailed in some other parts of the island. From  
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this comparison of those diseases, a diversity among them is observable.

This volume is distinguished by the same assiduous attention to the nature of diseases, and the same judicious application of medicine, that we remarked in the author's former Observations. The method of cure is every where founded in just principles, and its utility confirmed by experience.

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*Remarks on Johnson's Life of Milton. To which are added, Milton's Treatise of Education and Arsopagitica. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Dilly.*

**I**N our critique on Dr. Johnson's Lives of the Poets we had observed (which the author of this little volume does us the honour to take notice of) that 'his remarks on Milton and Waller, whose political opinions by no means coincided with his own, may be thought rather too severe.' The remarker, however, is, in the piece before us, infinitely more severe on Dr. Johnson than he has been on Milton, and seems to persecute that respectable biographer with a degree of personal animosity and contemptuous ridicule, which, as impartial reviewers, we cannot approve.

'When the doctor (says he) found that his crude abuse and malicious criticisms would not bring down Milton to the degree of contempt with the public which he had assigned him in the scale of prose-writers; he fell upon an expedient which has sometimes succeeded in particular exigencies. In one word, he determined to write his Life.'

What the remarker here so positively asserts to have been a long, premeditated, and determined resolution of Dr. Johnson's, viz. his writing the Life of Milton, we must beg leave to observe, every man, at all acquainted with the literary world, very well knows was entirely the work of chance, and owing to an application from a bookseller, who, whilst the new edition of the English Poets was printing, very wisely fixed on Dr. Johnson as the most proper person whom he could engage to write their lives. When the doctor had undertaken this task, he had an undoubted right to consider Milton's character in every point of view, as a prose-writer, a politician, &c. and to give his free opinion concerning it.

In all controversial points (and the life of Milton seems to have become one) it has generally been thought fair in the opponent to lay hold of every story, if it fell in his way, that could tend to discredit his adversary; but to go entirely out of it merely for that purpose, is perhaps hardly defensible; and yet

yet such has been the conduct of our remarker, who, merely to throw an odium on the character of Dr. Johnson, has revived the old story of Lauder, and his false accusations of Milton, which, as the reader will perceive, by referring to the first part of this answer, amounts to no more than that Dr. Johnson was misled, as well as many others, by the art and chicanery of Lauder, believed him to be an honest, well-meaning man, and wrote in his favour. This is well-known and acknowledged, but it is likewise equally well known, that when Dr. Douglas had detected Lauder, Dr. Johnson, with all the rest of the world, deserted and despised him.

‘ But they who read Lauder’s complaints (says this remarker) of this confidential friend in the pamphlet just quoted, must superabound both in faith and charity, if they can believe that the composer of the letter to Mr. Douglas was unconscious of Lauder’s forgery, previously to Dr. Douglas’s detection of it.’

This perhaps is rather begging the question.—The remarker, speaking of Milton’s prose works, which he seems to entertain a very high opinion of, takes occasion to observe that ‘ Milton was as valuable a writer to the party he espoused, as Dr. Johnson is to the present administration, though not bought with a price.’ This, we cannot help saying, is an invidious and illiberal reflection.—In another place he says,

‘ Pensions and preferments are wonderful enlighteners : and the free circulation of sedition during the last reign, when many an honest Jacobite propagated his discontents without the least apprehension for his ears, is now become a pernicious policy, unworthy of the wisdom and dignity of an administration under the protection of the respectable Dr. Samuel Johnson.’

And a little farther on, speaking of Milton’s employment under Cromwell,

‘ This (says he) was the only province in which Milton acted under that government which Dr. Johnson calls an usurpation, let his services be compared with those performed by Dr. Johnson for his present patrons ; and let the constitutional subject of the British empire judge which of them better deserves the appellation of a traitor to public liberty, or have more righteously earned the *bounty* of a pension.’—

— If controversial fame were thus to be purchased, Dr. Johnson might be esteemed the first of writers in that province, for no man ever expressed his abuse in a more inimitable style of abuse. And though he may sometimes create suspicions that he has either never read, or does not understand the writings he so peremptorily censures : yet the vehicle is pleasing, and the reputation he has gained by his labours of more general utility pre-



precludes all examination, and he expects his scandalous chronicle should be licensed and received upon his own bare word."

Dr. Johnson, speaking of Milton's political character, had observed that his political notions were those of an acrimonious and surly republican. On this passage the remarker comments thus:

"The world (says he) would have given Dr. Johnson credit for his inveterate hatred of republican notions, without his qualifying them with the epithets of *acrimonious* and *surly*, as exhibited by Milton, whose defenders might, with equal justice at least, call him an *acrimonious and surly royalist*."

Surely in these and many other parts of this performance, such personal attacks on Dr. Johnson's public and private character carry with them an air of pique, resentment, and malevolence, which do little honour to the writer of them, or the cause which he espouses. But the leaven of party-rage has, to say the truth, in this age found its way into and poisoned every performance. Exclusive, however, of this objectionable circumstance, we meet in this little volume with some strictures concerning Milton, which are not unentertaining, nor ill-written; and which therefore, as every thing relative to so great a man must be interesting, we would recommend to the perusal of our readers.

We cannot conclude this article without mentioning what the remarker calls the ADDENDUM, p. 160, which we shall here give in his own words:

"Mr. Boerhadem's Letter, in the Gentleman's Magazine for October, 1779, concerning Dr. Johnson's narrative of Milton's omitting all acts of religious worship both in public and private, came not to our hands till it was too late to insert in the printed *Remarks on Dr. Johnson's Life of Milton*, the thanks we think he well deserves, as an able co-operator with us in the defence of Milton. The friends of Milton are particularly obliged to him, for remarking Dr. Newton's improvement upon Toland, and Dr. Johnson's upon Newton, in their several accounts of Milton's conduct with respect to religious worship; and we think it an apt illustration of Toby Smollet's story of the *three crows*. For our parts, we are of opinion, that Milton's sentiments, or the practical effects of them in matters of religion, want no vindication. As to the matter in question, we remember a passage in Robert Barclay's catechism, where the author, having cited several texts of Scripture, concludes, "Ex omnibus hisce scripturæ locis apparet, verum Dei cultum in spiritu esse; et sicut nec certo cuilibet loco; ita nec certo cuivis tempori limitatur." This might be Milton's persuasion, as well as Barclay's; but no considerate man would conclude from these words, that Barclay never prayed in private.

"The

The worthy man to whose memory these papers are dedicated fell under many foolish and illiberal suspicions on account of his absenting from public worship. If any of our more ingenuous readers have been imposed upon, or influenced by such base insinuations of purblind bigotry, we may hope they will now see in some expressions of Mr. Hollis's heart-felt unaffected piety, that *pure religion and undefiled before God and the Father*, does not depend upon a man's exterior connections with any visible church, or religious society, so called, whatever. And this we presume to offer as a complete apology for Milton, as well as his excellent and ever memorable disciple.'

In the conclusion of this ADDENDUM the remarker seems, we may observe, perfectly satisfied that what he has advanced is '*a complete apology for Milton and his excellent disciple.*' To this, however, we can by no means give our assent, as we think the conduct of both, with regard to their absenting from public worship, highly blameable; more especially as no reasons were ever offered by either of them for what is generally, we hope, considered as the indispensable duty of a Christian; and though we would not assert that a man cannot be honest or good who does *not* pay any regard to established rites and ceremonies, and the religious worship of his country, we should certainly have a better opinion of him if he *did*.

*Letters from a Tutor to his Pupils. Small 8vo. 3s. sewed.*  
Robinson.

THIS work contains twenty-six Letters from a Tutor to his Pupils.—On a teachable Disposition, which is the subject of his first Letter, the author writes *feelingly*; like a preceptor who has experienced the comfort of such a turn of mind, and the torment of a contrary disposition.—His letter On good Manners contains the language and sentiments of a well-bred gentleman.—On Temperance, though he recommends it, as highly conducive to our happiness and welfare, *ut sit mens sana in corpore sano*, yet we cannot but think he has pushed his opinion, upon this subject, too far.—On Diversions he is instructive; and we find a happy mixture of labour and recreation recommended.—Of the Study of Novels he gives the youthful reader a proper contempt, by pointing out in strong terms their pernicious influence on the mind.—In his Letter on the Use of Mathematical Learning, he ridicules the idea of its being adapted only to artists and mechanics; and to those who are engaged in military or naval employments. He shews that it is '*eminently serviceable to improve and strengthen the in-*

intellectual faculties, and render them more fit for every kind of speculation.' He tells his pupils that it is a gross abuse of mathematical knowledge, when it leads to vanity, pedantry, narrow-mindedness, and scepticism; when it induces them to neglect and despise all other learning, which is equally, and in some respects, more valuable for improving the heart and rectifying the judgment.—On Reading and Pronunciation he writes sensibly; but this has less of novelty than any other; his examples are trite; and if that false reading of the passage of scripture had been omitted, p. 47, we would have excused him.—On Style, and On the Idioms of Language he expresses himself like one that has attended very closely to the different modifications of different countries in their expressions; in his next edition we have no doubt of his correcting a very important error of the press in his Italian illustration, where *non sapiente* takes the place of *non sa niente* most improperly.—On the Use of History, he takes an opportunity of instilling into the minds of his pupils some ideas of government, which though true, are rather unfashionable.—But in no part of this work does our author more distinguish himself than in his Letter on Taste.—He traces the Origin of Fables to the earliest ages of the world, and shews them to be a very pleasing as well as useful vehicle of instruction.—He is far from exploding the use of Heathen Learning, though he is for putting it under proper regulation.—There is much entertainment to be met with in the Consent which he shews us between the Scriptures and the Heathen Poets.—On the Roman Satyrists's Love of Solitude he has raised an instructive moral from a single expression of the poet, which we conceive is carried farther than even Horace himself pursued it; who seems to have been in his general character too much of a *bon vivant* to relish the pleasures of solitude.—On the Effect of Learning upon the Manners, he writes like one that knows its true value, and its happy influence on the mind; so soften the ferocity, and regulate the disorders incident to an uncultivated disposition. He very properly discommends what is called *spirit*, that is a contentious, and quarrelsome behaviour in boys; or that unpardonable resentment, which shews itself in revenging the slightest provocation; and afterwards leads to those *raisons* which do so much dishonour to the present enlightened times. He recommends complaisance and gentility as highly necessary to secure the favour of men and as inferior only to that virtue which will secure to us the favour of God.—His ideas of True and False Honour are consistent with what had been advanced in the preceding Letter;

ter; but the subject is pursued in a more lively way.—On Literary Composition, he furnishes the young student with useful hints for the due selection of his materials, in order to a proper, distinct arrangement of his thoughts: and here he gives his pupils two examples which comprehend all that is necessary for them to learn, in order to check the luxuriance of a redundant fancy, or to supply the deficiencies of a slow invention.—To a young Gentleman going into the Army, he recommends such a cautious, well-guarded conduct, as may serve to secure him from those dangers, which are much more fatal than any to which his profession is likely to expose him. He recommends this motto to every hero, that would be 'thought a Christian, *'Je crains Dieu, et je n'ai point d'autres craintes,' I fear God, and I have no other fear.*—On the Practice of Devotion he is short, but nervous, and much in earnest: exploding the idea of false shame, which often restrains young people from doing their duty in this respect.—On Parties he gives a dispassionate history of the origin of society; and traces the ground of dispute between the two parties which have made most noise in this kingdom.—On the Character of Voltaire he expresses himself like one who knows the value of wisdom and learning, and the worthlessness as well as danger of wit, when separated from religious principles.—And in his next Letter he gives his readers a pretty large translation of a French work entitled *Les Erreurs de Voltaire*; which we wish had not been altogether so literal, as the original writer, abbé Nonnotte, who seems to have entered thoroughly into the genius and spirit of the philosopher of Fernay, does not appear to so much advantage as he might have done.—In the following Letter, on the same subject, he convicts this celebrated wit of having much too short a memory for a writer who does not make truth the object of his enquiries; he produces some of the most glaring contradictions, and concludes his Letter with guarding his young friends against the wiles of this arch-deceiver.—His last Letter is on a very important subject, on Private Judgment; which he treats with ingenuity.

On the whole, these Letters contain a variety of learned, useful, and original observations: the author has selected such subjects; and treated them in such a style and manner, that we hope many young students in our schools and universities will be better acquainted with their contents than they can be from such an abstract as our plan admits of.

FOREIGN

## FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

*Freymüthige Betrachtungen über die wahren Vortheile eines Staats; or, Free Considerations on the true Interests of a State.* 8vo. Leipzig. (German.)

UNDER this title we meet with general but sensible and useful reflections on the means of attaining the chief ends of political economy and civil society. The best means for these purposes, are, in our author's opinion, to secure national liberty, and the country-people's safe possession and enjoyment of the fruits of their own labour, and of their paternal inheritance.

*Phædri Fabularum Æsopiarum Libri V. ex Recensione Burmanni. Cum selectis Variorum Notis et suis Observationibus edidit J. G. S. Schwabe, Scholæ Buttstadiensis Rector. Pars Prior, Libr. I. & II. continens.* 8vo. Halle.

The learned editor has calculated this edition of Phædrus rather for the use of schools than for critical readers; and for this purpose selected the useful parts of the notes of former commentators, and subjoined his own remarks; with Scheffer's Life of Phædrus; a Memoir concerning the MSS. of Phædrus; and an elaborate list of all the editions and translations of that fabulist.

*Topographie, oder kurze Beschreibung desjenigen Distrikt der Bayerischen Lande, welche das durchlauchtigste Ertz-Haus von Oesterreich kraft der mit Kur Pfalz zu Teschen geschlossenen Convention in Besitz genommen hat; or, a Short Description of that District of the Bavarian Dominions of which the House of Austria has taken possession, by virtue of the Convention entered into with the Elektor Palatine; Quarto, with 1 Map, and 21 Plates.* Vienna. (German.)

An alphabetical account of the towns, convents, borroughs, villages, manors, &c. belonging to the eight balliwicks, lately ceded by Bavaria to Austria. This new acquisition is delineated in a map, and the 21 plates contain delineations of some towns, convents, manors, &c.

F. A. Knittel's, &c. *neue Kritiken über das weltberühmte Zeugniß des alten Juden Fl. Josephus von unserem Herrn und Heiland Jesu Christo; or, New Critical Observations on the Testimony of Fl. Josephus concerning Jesus Christ.* Quarto. Brunswick and Hildheim. (German.)

A striking instance how many new and interesting things may be said on a critical question, which has for a long time been considered as absolutely decided.

It was indeed impossible that Josephus could have written the famous passage as it now stands; but Mr. Knittel has found means to remove some of the main difficulties merely by changing a few interpunctuations, and by a critical conjecture, or indeed somewhat better than conjecture, as it is very probable that the same reading produced by Mr. Knittel's emendations, already occurs in the ancients.

After giving an excellent and just delineation of Josephus's character and answering several objections sometimes urged from single expressions against the authenticity of the whole passage, he corrects the following passages:

Instead of 'ὁδωκαλος ανθρωπων των ηδων τα αληθη διαχομαιναι,' he reads, especially according to a hint of Eusebius (Demonstr. Evang. lib. iii. p. 133.) τα αληθη διαχομαιναι.

VOL. XLIX. May, 1780.

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Instead

Instead of ὁ Χριστὸς ἔτος ηῦ, καὶ αὐτὸν ἐνδείξαι, Mr. Knittel reads ὁ Χριστὸς ἔτος ηῦ καὶ αὐτὸν ἐνδείξαι, and refers αὐτὸν to the Gentiles or Greeks immediately preceding.

Thus, after two *Quar* *prop*, he puts also a full stop. And the text, as it stands after these three emendations, signifies:

About this time lived Jesus, a learned man, (if a man, however, he may be called,) for he performed miraculous works, and was a teacher of such as readily received what is uncommon (were fond of paradoxes.) He attracted not only many Jews but also many Gentiles. He was the Messiah even of these (the latter, or Gentiles.) Notwithstanding Pilate, at the accusations of the leading people of our nation, executed the punishment of the cross; yet those who had formerly loved him, did not disappear. For he appeared to them on the third day of the holy prophets, alive. These, and other surprising things concerning him, the Christians have to this day related. The race of those who are called after him, is still subsisting.

Yet after all these emendations, some difficulties and objections still remain to be perhaps removed by some future critic, equally fortunate with our author.

*Lettera sul Monte Vulture, a sua Eccellenza il Signor Gugl. Hamilton; dell' Abate Domen. Tata. 8vo. (Napoli.)*

The mountain here very learnedly and minutely described, is remarkable not only on account of its natural curiosities, but also of the town of Venosa, the native place of Horace, situated on it. This mountain, Vulture, lies in 41° 00' 50" of latitude, and 13° 14' of longitude; nearly thirty Italian miles from the sea; and has nearly thirty Italian miles in circumference. Abate Tata thinks not only this mountain the production of a volcano, but the whole ridge of the Apennines themselves. At the town of Lavelle, at Venosa, and in the fields, he has found, and here copied and published, a variety of ancient inscriptions.

More than one half of his book is taken up by a very strange and tedious letter, written by Signor Ciro Saverio Minervino, on the etymology of Mount Vulture. He traces his Vultur, and in the same manner, several other names of towns, rivers, mountains, in Lower Italy, not only to the Hebrew, the Arabic, but also to the Æthiopic, Coptic, Persian, Pehlvi, Zend, Chinese, Malayan tongues — *Infelix laborum!* —

The author promises, or threatens, to publish a voluminous work, entitled *Saggio della Religione de' Pagani*, where he will evince, 'con somma evidenza,' says he, that all the languages just mentioned, are near relations, &c. and what is still more strange, in that work he will demonstrate even to intuition, that the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, and all Homer's works, are nothing more or less than fabled and symbolical books of the priests of Siris (afterwards *Heraclæa*, on the eastern coast of Lower Italy;) that the gods and heroes of the *Iliad* are symbolical signs of the calamities with which *Troas* was afflicted by subterraneous fires; and the *Odyssey*, of other similar devastations in other places; that there was no such person as *Homer*; and that his name is only the title of the book. — But, *Claudite jam rivos!* —

*Recueil de tous les Costumes des Ordres Religieux et Militaires. Avec un Abrégé Historique et Chronologique. Enrichi des Notes et des Planches coloriées, Par M. Bar. Folio. (Paris.)*

No critical or historical work; but just enough of letter press to explain and describe the very numerous and multifarious figures displayed

displayed in the copper plates; and to refer the reader to the works from which the short historical accounts have been taken; and where he may apply for farther satisfaction.—The plates are neat and elegant.

*Abbildung aller Geistlichen und Weltlichen Orden, nebst einer kurzen Geschichte derselben von ihrer Stiftung an bis auf unsere Zeiten; or, a Delineation of all the Religious and Secular Orders, with their concise History from their respective Institutions to the present Times. Quarto. with Plates. Mannheim. (German.)*

The plates in this publication are, perhaps, somewhat less splendid, but neat; and the text, choice, and plan, are incomparably better than those in the French work just noticed.

*Luciferi, Episcopi Calaritani, Opera Omnia quæ exstant, curantibus Jo. Domin. et Jac. Calitis, Seb. Filiis. Folio. (Venice)*

The present editors of Lucifer's works had the good fortune to procure a MS. from the Vatican library, and another, as valuable, from a private Venetian library; from which they have published a few interesting emendations. The last paper is a Professio Fidei Luciferi, here for the first time published under this title, from a Milanese MS.; though it has been already published by Quesnel, under the title of 'Faustini Presbyteri Fides missa Theodos. Imp.'

That no Index Locorum Scripturæ Sacræ has been subjoined to this edition, has justly been noticed and censured as an essential omission and neglect.

*Essais historiques, littéraires et critiques sur l'Art des Accouchemens; ou Recherches sur les Coutumes, les Moeurs et les Usages des Anciens et des Modernes dans les Accouchemens; l'Etat des sages Femmes des Accoucheurs & des Nourrices chez les uns et les autres. Ouvrage dans lequel on a recueilli les faits les plus intéressans et les plus utiles sur cette Matière. Avec un grand Nombre des Notes curieuses et d'Anecdotes singulieres. Par M. Sue le Jeune, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris.*

Two volumes, of rather more than 1400 pages, on such a subject, is what might scarce have been expected from a most notorious and determined book-maker: and, indeed, in looking for 'les faits les plus intéressans et les plus utiles sur cette matière, avec un grand nombre des notes curieuses et d'anecdotes singulieres,' so confidently promised in the above title, a reader can hardly forbear expressing his indignation on seeing his time and expectations so egregiously abused. To what purpose are St. Austin, Virgil, E. Bourdaloue, Homer, Tho. Corneille, Lulli, Job, Voltaire, S. Hieronymus, Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, Moses, Samuel, Solomon, Euripides, Demosthenes, Ulysses, Æneas, Telemachus, Sophocles, Racine, Mahomet, Ceres, Bacchus, Dido, Hercules, Neptune, the French organist Marchand, and heaven knows how many other famous personages, absolute strangers to the subject, introduced into a history of midwifery?—merely to swell the volume.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE. POLITICAL.

*The People's Barrier against undue Influence and Corruption. By John Cartwright. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Almon.*

THIS pamphlet is divided into chapters, the first of which contains principles, maxims, and primary rules of politics, to which the author afterwards occasionally refers. In the

second chapter, the author endeavours to shew that in our ancient parliaments *all* the commons were represented; that their elections were annual, or more frequent; and that it was in the constitution of parliaments, that they assembled and sat *at a certain* for time and place, besides being at the *occasional* call of the crown for extraordinary business. In the third chapter, the author traces the first innovation against the right of a complete representation of the commons in parliament; and the subsequent innovations against the constitutional duration of parliaments. He afterwards endeavours to shew the fatal consequences resulting from the statute of disfranchisement and from the triennial and septennial bills. He concludes with urging an immediate reformation, for obtaining which purpose he proposes two acts of parliament.

Concerning this elaborate pamphlet it may be sufficient to observe, that the author, Mr. Cartwright, prosecutes through the whole that spirit of political reform, for which he has become a partizan among the members of the Westminster Association. The inferences he draws, in many places, however, are not always justly applicable to the principles whence he deduces them; and it is doubtful whether the proposed plan of reformation would not give a greater shock to the constitution than any which the latter has hitherto received from the zeal of injudicious and intemperate reformers.

*The Reformer.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Fielding and Walker.

This writer sets out with enumerating the motives for the act in favour of the Roman catholics; proceeding afterwards to reprobate the conduct of opposition in general, and to delineate several of the characters which compose that party. His remarks, though somewhat severe, are generally well founded.

*An Address to the People of England.* By John Burnaby. 8vo. 1s. Doddsley.

The subject of this Address is the increase of the poor rates, concerning the regulation of which, the author delivers some useful hints.

*Domestic Peace and Good humour essential to National Happiness.* Small 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

The proposition which forms the title of this performance, is unquestionably founded in truth; and the author endeavours to enforce it with the same good humour which he recommends. In general, his observations are sensible and ingenious, as well as his arguments persuasive; but he is sometimes too diffuse in the illustration of his subject.

*A Letter to a Dissenting Minister, containing Remarks on a late Address for the Relief of his Majesty's Subjects professing the Popish Religion.* By a Lay Dissenter. 8vo. 1s. Nicoll.

The author of this letter freely, and, to all appearance, justly censures the spirit and design of the Protestant Association; and  
 2 shews,



shows, by extracts from several acts of parliament, that neither popish priests nor schoolmasters are legally tolerated in exercising any part of their functions.

This tract is worthy of an attentive perusal, as it not only recommends the truly Christian principles of charity and moderation; but, more particularly, as it contains a brief state of the penal laws now in force, respecting the Roman catholic religion in this kingdom.

*A Remonstrance addressed to the Protestant Association; containing Observations on their Conduct, and on their Appeal to the People of Great Britain. By William Jesse, Vicar of Hutton-Cranswick, Yorkshire. 8vo. 1s. Rivington.*

Though the author of this Remonstrance allows, that Popery is one of the most shameful superstitions, which have ever been propagated, to the disgrace of human nature, and the dishonour of the Christian name, yet he speaks of its professors with the benevolence and philanthropy of a true Christian.

‘I can suppose, says he, that a firm opinion of the pope’s supremacy, of the corporal presence of Christ in the sacrament, and the use of images, may be retained by men, who worship God in spirit and truth, who have a most cordial attachment to our Saviour, and who live in the practice of all known virtues and good works.’—‘I am taught by Christian philosophy, or to speak more in character, am instructed by the spirit of truth, to renounce my national prejudices, and the prejudices of my education, and to esteem men of other countries, and of other persuasions in religion, as dear to God, and as capable of being partakers of the same salvation and hope, as myself.’

Addressing himself to the Associators, he says:

‘If your association had been merely political, if you had not pretended religion, the association had been unnoticed by me. But whereas you call it a Protestant Association, and profess a concern for Christianity, as a chief ground of your proceedings, and the sacred name of religion is your pretence, and in the name of my master thunder both civil and ecclesiastical excommunication against those who differ from you in religious opinions and practices, and your Appeal breathes the spirit of persecution against those whom you anathematize as idolaters, who are to be disfranchised as citizens, their mouths to be gagged, and their worship according to conscience suppressed—I say, whereas you act the part of bigotted Papists, in the name of Christians and Protestants, I think you are setting about a work which Christ never imposed on his followers; and which he has warned his people never to be engaged in; and I cannot but be alarmed at the consequences I apprehend. I cannot but feel for many of my mistaken brethren, who are members of your association; and tremble for many other, who may be influenced by your Appeal to join in the crusade, which you proclaim against the poor Papists—I am alarmed because I think your conduct quite opposite to the gospel; as opposite as you esteem Popery to be; and I fear lest any truly Christian people should, by zealously pursuing your plan, swerve from the truth and spirit of Christianity.’

Upon these principles the author proceeds to consider the sentiments, and the conduct of the Association, and very properly

censures their intemperate zeal, in a variety of instances. At the conclusion, he subjoins an extract from Reeves's translation of Tertullian's Apology; and a great number of passages from the New Testament, which display the meek, the patient, the charitable spirit of Christianity, and amply vindicate the doctrine, inculcated in this Address.

Pretended Christians, who seem not to be sufficiently acquainted with the genius of the gospel, or know not what manner of spirit they are of, cannot employ an hour to a more useful purpose, than in the perusal of this excellent tract.

*A Reply to an Appeal from the Protestant Association to the People of Great Britain, &c. 8vo. 6d. Dilly.*

Detached observations, calculated to refute every assertion of importance in the Appeal; to shew, that there is nothing to be apprehended from the late act in favour of the Roman Catholics; that persecution is incompatible with the meekness of the gospel, and the liberality of the British constitution; and that Popery will be sooner and more effectually overcome by toleration than by penal statutes. This tract, like the foregoing, breathes the genuine spirit of Christianity.

## M E D I C A L.

*Philosophical Inquiries into the Laws of Animal Life, Chap. II. By Hugh Smith, M.D. 4to. 1s. L. Davis.*

In this chapter Dr. Smith examines the most material objections that have been advanced against the admission of the atmospheric air into our fluids; and he concludes with enforcing his own doctrine, that the circulation of the blood, and the whole œconomy of the vascular system, depends upon the action of the internal air, that is inhaled from the atmosphere. The author's hypothesis is, undoubtedly, very ingenious, and the farther he advances in supporting it, he displays a greater force of argument.

## D I V I N I T Y.

*The Divine Right of a Christian to Freedom of Enquiry and Freedom of Practice in Religious Matters, extracted from the Christian Records. Small 8vo. 1s. Rivington,*

The right, which is pleaded for in this tract, consists in a man's determining for himself in all matters of religion, by exercising his own understanding on the Christian scriptures: or, in other words, it is a right to embrace, profess, and defend whatever he apprehends to be religious truth or duty, without discouragement or restraint from men.

The grounds upon which this right is built, are these: that religion, strictly considered, is entirely a personal concern, and altogether foreign from the nature, object, and use of civil magistracy; that Jesus Christ is the only sovereign of conscience; that the sacred scriptures are a perfect rule in all religious concerns; and that every Christian is, or may be, a competent judge of the various branches of revealed truth, at least, so far as relates to his everlasting salvation,

To confirm these general principles the author proves from the New Testament, that Christians are commanded to call no man master on earth; that Jesus Christ has absolutely charged all his disciples not to assume an authority over the consciences of men; that the apostles gave it in charge to the persons they address, to examine what is proposed to them with the greatest freedom; that every Christian must contend for the faith, and stand fast in it; that they are highly commended, who have examined with freedom, and acted with firmness; and that, if every Christian must give a personal account of his actions, he must have the liberty of self-direction, and ought not to be under any restraint whatever.

The author then points out the motives, which enforce the exercise of this right, and gives some directions for the proper regulation of our conduct in this particular.

On the last of these heads he tells us, that there are matters of pure revelation, which are not to be argued about at all, but received and believed implicitly on the authority of God: such as, the distinction and unity of the Father, Son, and Holy Spirit; the union of the divine and human nature in the person of Christ, &c.

Here the author mistakes the usual ground of dispute among Christians. They do not question the authority of Christ and his apostles; nor deny any doctrine, which is confessedly revealed: but they differ concerning the meaning of Scripture. One says, the doctrine in controversy is plainly delivered in the New Testament; and another affirms, that it is neither read therein, nor can be proved thereby; and that it is a mere human invention, unsupported by any text of scripture, properly explained. These controversies are allowable; and the implicit reception of any doctrine, before its existence in the Scriptures is clearly and fully ascertained, is credulity and folly.

*Liberty Moral and Religious. A Sermon preached before the University of Cambridge, on February the 27th, 1780, at Great St. Mary's Church. By William Cooke, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.*

*Civil Liberty. A Sermon preached before the University of Cambridge, on April the 9th, 1780, at Great St. Mary's Church. By William Cooke, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.*

This writer looks upon those persons as contending for a visionary idea, who maintain, that all men, before their coalitions in society, and their voluntary surrender to civil restrictions, were absolutely free, without any other law than their will. For, says he, I would ask, whether it is possible to conceive men, or indeed any intelligent animal whatever, exempt from all rule and control. Figure to yourself a being made up wholly of will, which includes intelligence. Where there is will there is choice, and consequently objects of pursuit, and others again of aversion. Will of course would aim at these, and decline the others; so that objects of disgust and abhorrence would become

in a good degree a law to will; and though obliquely and indirectly still influence and determine its action. Where therefore there is will, there is of necessity restraint: where restraint, liberty. For liberty is not so much exemption from restraints, as submission to them, and carriage under them. . . . There never then was a time, when man was perfectly free. . . . But has man no rights, as well as restraints? . . . Yes certainly. But then these claims and pretensions have all their proper checks and restraints collateral and correlative with them. And it is in the due contrast, counterbalance, and poise of these rights and these restraints that all our liberty and duty consist. . . . A man has a right to his life; but God and his country have claims upon him paramount and superior to that natural right. Here is right on the one hand, restraint on the other. The restraint preponderates, and bears down the right. The man is perfectly free, to lay down his life or keep it. If he sacrifices his life, in case of exigence, to God or his king, he uses his liberty, waving his lesser right, in deference to the greater restraint. On the contrary, the subject's obedience is due to the sovereign in all things lawful; whereby restriction lies on his moral agency. He is enjoined by his prince to change his religion; he is free to do it, or not; but he has a right of his own too strong for the restraint of his sovereign's will, viz. his plighted faith to God. He throws off the restraint, asserts his right, keeps steadfast to his religion, and his disobedience to his sovereign is allowed and justified in the good and rational use of his liberty. . . .

'To illustrate the abuse of liberty, let us resume the cases and reverse the propositions. As before, we consider man with a right to his life, subordinate and subject to a restraint, viz. duty to God or his king (or call it country, we do not cavil about a term.) Now should he magnify the right in prejudice to the restraint, (for you cannot exalt the one but that you extenuate and depreciate the other) and choose to maintain his natural right to existence to be insurmountable and indefeazable by that restrictive obligation.—Or should he in the other case with rights of faith and religion confessedly more cogent and prevailing than the restraints of loyalty and allegiance, depart from his unalienable rights in compliance with the less obligatory restriction, and dishonour God, to honour his king.—In either case he abuses his liberty; or in the very express and emphatical words of the text—*uses his liberty for the cloak of maliciousness*—that is, he builds up false, unwarrantable rights of his own, and obtrudes them as the shield and covering for his impatience under just control; for the depravity, degeneracy, and debasement of his nature—the profligate prostitution of his honour and conscience, and the wilful rot and corruption of his heart and principle.'

In this manner the author lays down the principles of moral, religious, and civil liberty; defining it, the action of a reasonable being, according to the direction of right or restraint.

He informs us, that he has prepared for the press the Poetics of Aristotle, with large notes in Latin, introductory Discourse, &c. in the same language.—These discourses are a proof, that the author has been much conversant in the works of Aristotle,

They

They have a good deal of the air and manner of the Stagirite.

## CONTRVERSIAL.

*Christian Catholicism defended: in some Remarks on a Letter to the Rev. Benj. Fawcett, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Buckland.*

The grand object of Mr. Fawcett's *Candid Reflections* \* were to represent the different schemes, which different persons have adopted, in relation to the doctrine of the Trinity, and the reasons, arising from thence, for the exercise of mutual charity. His opponent objected †, that he has represented the Trinitarians and their doctrine in an unfavourable light. The author of these Letters, on the part of Mr. Fawcett, answers every material objection alleged by his adversary; and, in his turn, complains, that the Letter to Mr. Fawcett is an unmanly attempt to prevent the progress of Christian candor and moderation in the world, and to cherish that censorious spirit, which has done more mischief to the cause of Christianity than has ever been done by the most violent attacks of infidelity.

*An Essay on Intellectual Liberty. Addressed to the rev. Mr. David Williams. By M. Dawes, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Cadell.*

The author of this tract maintains, against Mr. Williams, that Mr. George Savile was right, when he asserted in the house of commons, in the debate concerning the dissenters bill, that there are some opinions (meaning the public declaration and avowal of them) which cannot be tolerated, however suffered: as those in favour of murder, plunder, theft, &c.

‘To tolerate,’ says Mr. Dawes, the avowal of such opinions, would be to allow and approve them; states only *suffer* them to be avowed, because they cannot punish their avowal.—‘To tolerate a public declaration of such opinions would be cruel. It would be shewing an acquiescence, until they were carried into execution, and then making a prey of those who entertained them, by giving them up to the secular power.’—

In the latter part of this tract the author shews, that it was not dishonourable to the character of this nation to pass the last dissenting bill, with the test of the Scriptures.

Though this writer expressly declares, that, as a philosopher, ‘he will not perish at the stake in favour of any opinion;’ yet he thinks, that the preservation of Christianity, and the liberal mode of worship in our established church, as a national religion, is of the utmost consequence to the civil state. He reprobates the doctrine of those, who plead for the public avowal all opinions and principles, though ever so enormous and licentious; and he very properly vindicates the wisdom of our legislature, in granting only a *limited* toleration.

\* Crit. Rev, vol. xlv. p. 72.

† Vol. xlviii. p. 154.

*A Sketch of the Times. A Satire. 4to. 2s. Bew.*

This is a very severe Satire on the manners and distinguished characters of the present age, written in the style of the Diabolist, and in many parts not inferior to it in poetical merit; though there is an unremitted bitterness and asperity throughout, which is rather disgusting. The author seems, like an unfeeling executioner, not only to do his duty with all exactness, but to take a kind of malevolent pleasure in the performance; besides, that all the characters which he cuts up, are by no means, at least in our opinion, deserving of such rough and uncharitable censure.

Amongst our author's *Sketches*, as he modestly styles them, the following approaches perhaps the nearest towards a finished portrait,

' Sunk in the vale of years, the strumpet's sport,  
In fews a satyr, but a saint at court,  
A genius in chaste *Aretino's* way,  
Improving lech'ry to an art, like Grey,  
One lord (whom lustful expectation charms)  
Purchases harlots from the nurse's arms;  
Sighs for the grapes before the cluster's grown,  
When base adoption makes the plant his own;  
Gloats on green fruit for sacrifice design'd,  
And trains each wanton tendril to his mind.  
Vile, speculative, studious debauchee!  
Bending the twig as he wou'd form the tree;  
Panting at sev'nty for th' expected hour,  
When fancy must supply the want of pow'r;  
Nor age, nor impotence, his lust allays,  
And ev'ry fav'rite face resembles Ray's.  
O! that his lordship wou'd but view our fleets  
With half that zeal he wastes between the sheets!  
And, quitting Venus, (who abhors his name)  
Since he still bears our trident, prize its fame!

These lines are nervous, and well-pointed. The character of Furdicio (we hope it is an imaginary one), is likewise painted in the most warm and glowing colours: we shall therefore lay it before our readers.

' From bankruptcy how glorious is the rise!  
Furdicio sunk emerges in a trice.  
Fraud's a cork-jacket, honesty's a check  
To genius, a dead weight about its neck.  
Furdicio's rib, while bailiffs guard the door,  
For change inclin'd to take a little tour,  
To Spa, perhaps, or to to Montpelier runs,  
Sick of those clam'rous animals call'd duns.  
Meantime, shrewd management sets knav'ry free;  
Out rolls Furdicio in his vis a-vis.  
Is that the equipage of conscious debt;  
Without supporters and a coronet?  
If all were paid, a beggar's—yet no knot  
Berashly ty'd—can millstones drown a Scot?

Plung'd

Plung'd fathoms-deep still buoyantly he'll rise ;  
 And, like a witch, perdition's gulph defys ;  
 Sinks but to mount, and fix on firmer ground :  
 Concealment saves ten shillings in the pound.  
 Bankrupts with ease, when they've secur'd enough,  
 Cast off, like snakes, loose reputation's slough ;  
 With crests erect spring from their holes more bright,  
 Proud of their gilded spires enjoy the light,  
 And captivate the very fools they bite.  
 Cardicio a small pittance now contents ;  
 He strives to live upon six regiments.  
 What dole regards a ruin'd fame, or bank,  
 Whose nightcap nicely fits a man of rank ?

This, upon the whole, is one of the best party poems that has appeared for some time past.

*Private Thoughts on Public Affairs: with some Apology for the Conduct of our late Commanders in Chief by Sea and Land.* 4to. 1s. T. Payne.

The title of this piece is rather a quaint anticthesis, and doth not promise much; we were however agreeably disappointed in the perusal of it; for though politics and poetry again in their nature so different from each other that they seldom mingle well together, the author has in some parts so blended them as to make no unpleasing composition. Many of the lines are carelessly written, inaccurate, and prosaic, whilst there is in others great force, nerve, and beauty: for an instance of the first take the following,

— If the line you've chose you don't pursue,  
 Your character is hurt—and int'rest too ;  
 And 'gainst your side to vote mayn't always suit ;  
 'Tis a nice point, though Wedderburne can do't ;

Our author's *mayn't's* and *do't's* are surely very unpoetical; and yet, when he grows warm with his subject, his verse is elegant, and his numbers sweet and harmonious. There is a true poetical spirit in these lines, as well as much good satire, where, speaking of Burgoyne and Howe, he exclaims,

And O forgive, great chief! if, bold and rude,  
 She dares upon your province to intrude ;  
 For well I ween you ask no foreign aid—  
 To puff as well as fight alike you trade.  
 'Tis yours the moving scroll to dress, which shines  
 With Virgil's Latin, and with Shakespeare's lines ;  
 On popular complaints your own t' engraft—  
 Be panegyriciz'd, be paragraph'd ;  
 While mutual adulations fresh are pour'd  
 By Fox, by cousin Keppel, and my lord.

Far safer thus on paper to confute,  
 With none your propositions to dispute ;  
 No faucy witness there the tale belies,  
 No senates listen, no Germane replies,  
 But safe you clear your fame to all the nation,  
 And gain your point—in spite of prorogation.

• Illustrations

‘ Illustrious chiefs ! and memorable still,  
While bleeding Britain for her wrongs shall feel.  
Oft as yon sever’d continent shall rise  
In Truth’s dread glaſs before her purged eyes !  
How, unimpair’d, for you thoſe wreaths ſhall bloom,  
Which Hiſt’ry hangs around the warrior’s tomb !  
There, as poſterity with grateful haſte  
American campaigns has ſtudioſ track’d,  
How ſhall they wonder at the vaſt deſign,  
Where wiſdom, vigour, and diſpatch combine !  
That daring mind, which, eager to diſplay  
The Britiſh valour in the fight of day,  
Made you ſo nobly ſcorn each ‘vantage baſe,  
And never fight but full in danger’s face ;  
Your foe ſo often beat, but to be ſpar’d.  
And never once attack’d but when prepar’d.’

*Si ſic omnia dixiſſet*—This would have been an excellent poem ; but the writer, though poſſeſſed of natural powers, ſeems to be too careleſs and indolent ever to make any diſtinguiſhed figure in the regions of Parnafſus.

*Ode to Leonard Smelt, Eſq. 4to. 1s. Faulder.*

This Ode by Mr. Burnaby Green is but an indifferent performance, as our readers will ſee by the following ſhort quotation of one of its beſt ſanzas,

‘ Oh ! Party, Britain’s bane accurs’d !  
Each ill ſhe feels, thy rancor nurs’d.  
—Cameleon, varying with the times,  
Whoſe finer hues are black with crimes.  
—Thy clamors jar the table’s round ;  
No voice of peace, no cordial ſound  
Cheer thy ſtern treat—fell owl, whoſe game  
The nobler ſpoils of envy’d fame !  
Raven, (whoſe wings, of ſickly care  
Flap the lone bed) that croak’s deſpair !’

Mr. Leonard Smelt deſerves a much better panegyriſt.

*Ode to the Rev. Mr. Maſon. By Eliza Ryves. 4to. 1s. Dodſley.*

A very pretty *descriptive* Ode ; and, though it does not abound in new or exalted ſentiments, it is correct and claſſical, and exhibits the fair author to us as a woman of taſte and genius. She has already favoured the world with a volume of poems, and at the end of this ode gives us notice of a ſecond that will ſoon make its appearance. As it is, we find, to be publiſhed by ſubſcription, we heartily wiſh her all poſſible ſucceſs.

*An Ode. 4to. 1s. 6d. Dodſley.*

A *burleſque*, apparently deſigned, as a hundred others have been before it, to ridicule *ode-writing*. Nothing is ſo eaſily produced as this kind of mock-poetry, as all the merit of it conſiſts in running wildly from one ſubject to another ; putting a few pompous lines together, and then on a ſudden letting down the dignity of the verſe by ſome laughable idea, or *degrading* word—for inſtance, in this Ode, after the poet has addreſſed himſelf thus to the moon,

‘ Thy



' Thy gentle beams the lonely hermit sees,  
Gleam thro' the waving branches of the trees,  
Which, high-embow'ring, shade his gloomy cell,  
Where undisturb'd perpetual silence reigns,  
Unless the owl is heard, or distant bell,  
Or the wind whistling o'er the furzy plains :'

he attempts to make you laugh by adding,

' How blest to dwell in this sequest'rd spot :  
*Forgetting parliaments ; by them forgot !*'

The joke lies entirely in the word *parliaments*. And again, a little after,

' Soft nightingales their tuneful vigils hold,  
And sweetly sing and shake—and *shake with cold*.'

This is but a low species of humour, and can answer no end ; for after all this, or any other writer's, laugh and ridicule, the odes of Pindar, Grey, and Akinfide, will continue to be admired.

*The Modern Pantheon. A Dream. 8vo. 1s. Bow.*

The whole wit of this little pamphlet lies in the first page, which comprehends the names of the new deities, which we shall lay before our readers, who will be able to judge whether there is any humour or propriety in the application to living characters,

' God of Steadiness, His M—y. Goddess of Generation, Her M—y. God of Expectation, P. of W—. God of Decree, L—d C—r. Goddess of Sedition, Mrs. M—y. God of the Modern Compass, A. K—l. Goddess of Fashion, D—s of D—re. God of Emolument, L—d N—h. God of Detraction, Rev. Mr. B—e. —Goddess of Simples, L—y H—l. Goddess of Retaliation, Dow. L—y H—n. God of Weathercocks, Mr. W—e. God of Utterance, Sir F. N—n. God of Fleets, L—d S—h. God of Economy, Mr. B—k. God of Game, Mr. C. F—. God of Discipline, L—d A—t. Goddess of Literature, Mrs. C—r. God of Satyrs, L—d F—h. God of Has-beens, L—d B—ke.'

## D R A M A T I C.

*The Siege of Gibraltar : a Musical Farce, in two Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in Covent-garden. By F. Pilon. 8vo. 1s. Kearsly.*

The *Siege of Gibraltar* has some good sketches of characters, is not ill written, and has better pretensions to merit than any of the sing-song performances which Mr. Pilon's prolific farce-bearing Muse has hitherto brought forth.

## M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

*A candid Review of the Exhibition (being the twelfth) of the Royal Academy, 1780, dedicated to his Majesty. By an Artist. 4to. 6s. 6d. Evans.*

Prefixed to this *Candid Review of the Exhibition* we are presented with (what is much the most valuable part of the pamphlet), a description of the new building of Somerset-house, by that very

very ingenious architect Sir William Chambers; as this is a very proper and useful companion for all those who wish to be spectators of the exhibition, so will an explanation and illustration of the paintings and ornaments in the building be an agreeable amusement to all lovers of the polite arts; as such, we shall extract from it that part of the description which relates to the Royal Academy, and which, probably, when this pamphlet is sunk into oblivion, as performances of the day generally do, will be considered, when preserved in the volumes of the Critical Review, as a very valuable article.

On the staircase there are various figures and busts, which are well executed. On the first landing, a most beautiful painting, by Cipriani, in imitation of basso relievo; the subject is the Arts and Sciences. This piece possesses a great deal of merit.

The Library on the first floor. It is a small room, but elegantly ornamented with a painted ceiling. The centre represents Theory, by Sir Joshua Reynolds: she is described sitting on a cloud, darting her eye through the expanse, and holding a scroll in her hand, on which is written, "Theory is the knowledge of what is truly nature." This piece possesses a most beautiful lightness, and the figure seems rather to hover in the air, than to have any settled seat. The character is, by this means, finely preserved, and the colouring is in Sir Joshua's best style. In the coxes are also emblematical pieces, representing "Design, Character, Commerce, and Plenty," by Cipriani. The various characters which compose this representation, are treated with that spirit, elegance, and grace, which are peculiar to the pencil of this artist. Over the chimney is a bust of his Majesty in statuary marble, by Carlini: it is a strong expressive likeness. Under the bust is a basso relievo of "Cupid and Psyche," by Nollekens, which is delicately executed. There are dispersed in the rooms, several cases of stuffed birds, chiefly owls and hawks, which, if they are intended to mean any thing, imply, that if men do not possess the penetration of the hawk, they ought to assume the specious gravity of the owl, in order to conceal it; but we own we do not think the exhibition is much improved by the addition of these pieces. There are also some sulphur casts in frames, from antique gems, and several busts of the philosophers.

The room adjoining to this is that which is appropriated for the Antique Academy. There are a number of casts and models from almost all the antique figures which Europe possesses, collected in one point of view, and arranged in a masterly manner. This room is unadorned with painting, to give effect to the sculpture, and the eye of the student may not be diverted from his object.

This leads to the Lecture Room, which is spacious, elegant, and well-proportioned. The ceiling is painted in compartments, and the style does honour to the genius of Sir William Chambers. He has chosen a medium between the heavy grandeur of the last age, and the light frivolity of the present; and we may venture to foretell, that it will continue to be the taste, whatever may be the fashion. The centre compartment represents "the Graces unveiling nature." And the four next to it are "the Elements." These emblematical pieces are the productions of Mr. West, and convince us that his genius is neither confined to history nor portrait. He has discovered in these as much playful fancy as in his other compositions he has shewn of solid learning. In four small circles are the heads of ancient artists, "Apelles, Archimedes, Apollodorus, and

and Phidias," by Biaggi. At each end of the ceiling Angelica Kauffman has exerted her very strongest powers. The pieces represent Genius, Design, Composition, and Painting. These possess an infinite deal of character, and sweetness. Genius is finely represented leaning upon the celestial globe, and expressing the rapture of invention.—We view the very character which Shakespeare described:

"The poet's eye, in a fine frenzy rolling,  
Doth glance from heaven to earth, from earth to heaven,  
And, as imagination bodies forth  
The forms of things unknown, the poet's pen  
Turns them to shapes, and gives to airy nothing  
A local habitation and a name."

Design is drawing from the Torso—Study is in a serious, reclining attitude, with a chess-board, and other emblems before her—and Painting is exhibited, borrowing colours from the Rainbow.—These pieces are painted in a more masterly style than any of Angelica's former productions, and perhaps they are more beautiful because they are less finished. In the end of the room fronting the door, we are struck with two noble pictures of their Majesties, by Sir Joshua Reynolds. The King is sitting in the coronation chair in Westminster Hall, with all the insignia of royalty. The likeness is strong, and by a fortunate union of elegance and ease, it gives the most agreeable impression of his Majesty of any portrait which has yet been done.—The flowing disposition of the drapery, the richness, the harmony of the colouring, and the judicious choice of the Gothic back ground composes altogether a most beautiful and striking effect.—The Queen is also drawn sitting in the chair of state, and dressed in her royal robes. The likeness is strong, but there wants that graceful ease which generally characterises the portraits of Sir Joshua, and which we humbly conceive, the subject amply afforded. In the right hand corner of the room there is a most beautiful picture of "Samuel and Eli," by Mr. Copley. The subject is the moment of time when the child Samuel is informing Eli of the destruction of his house, and this story is so well, and so truly told, that we think we see the old man exclaim with pious composure, "It is the Lord! let him do what seemeth him good." The utmost care has been taken in the composition, expression, and colouring, and although every particular part is so minutely finished, yet the grand effect of the whole is not lost. Mr. Copley's genius for historical painting is now fully established, and confirms the opinion of the world on the exhibition of his Boy and Shark. These pictures are to remain in the room, and we hear that the frames, which are disposed around, are to be filled in the same manner. We are happy to see the first of the collection so perfect in their kind, and we hope that the other artists will be equally emulous in their endeavours, that an out-line may be formed for the English school. There are also a number of elegant plaster figures, casts from the antique, for the study of the pupils.

On the staircase, at the top of the next flight, and fronting the door of the grand exhibition room, there is another very fine piece of painting, of basso relievo, representing "Minerva and the Muses," by Cipriani. It is composed in the antique style, replete with grace and simplicity; and the deception is so great, that it is hardly possible to believe that the figures are not swelling from the wall. These are the only productions of this artist in the present year; their beauty is so great, that we lament they are so few in number.

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• We now enter the anti-room of the exhibition, which is small and receives its light from an arched window above the entrance. Over the door of the exhibition-room there is a painting of basso relievo, of the heads of their Majesties, in a medallion, supported by Design and Painting. And on the top of the door we read the following motto, imitated from that of Pythagoras,

“ ΟΥΔΕΙΣ-ΑΜΟΤΣΟΣ-ΕΙΣΙΤΩ.”

“ Let none but men of taste presume to enter.”

“ The grand exhibition-room is noble and spacious, measuring about sixty feet by fifty. It is very judiciously lighted by four arched windows, which distribute an equal light over the whole; the ceiling is painted with a tender sky, and has a very good effect. In the corners there are four emblematical pieces, representing “ Geometry, Architecture, Sculpture, and Painting, by Catton; the characters are boys, and exceedingly well preserved.

• On the whole, there is a taste both in the contrivance and execution of the plan of the rooms which does high honour to the artist, and even without the paintings, they would be worthy the admiration of the public.”

The review of the pictures in the exhibition, though short, is candid and judicious.

*Structures upon Agriculture Societies, with a Proposal for one upon a new Plan.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. T. Evans, Paternoster-Row.

One obvious advantage resulting from agriculture societies is, that they tend to excite a spirit of investigation and experiment. They also increase manual labour, which, though it should be accompanied with no benefit to the employer, is of service to the community, by affording additional means, of subsistence to the poor and day-labourer. For those, and other reasons, every institution of this kind is highly worthy of encouragement. The author of this pamphlet makes several judicious remarks on the agriculture societies that have been hitherto established; and he proposes a new plan for conducting them more advantageously. In particular, he is of opinion, that instead of honorary and pecuniary premiums, the objects of agriculture societies would be more effectually accomplished if the latter were provided with two farms; one to be appropriated to plowing, and the other to breeding. Besides other improvements, he proposes the instituting a veterinarian academy; and has subjoined an Essay on Smut in Corn.

*Rules and Orders of the Society instituted at Bath for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, &c.* 8vo. Printed at Bath.

This society is instituted for the encouragement of agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce, in the counties of Somerset, Wilts, Gloucester, Dorset, and the city and county of Bristol. The many public advantages already experienced from societies of this kind, in other places, afford reason to hope for good effects also from that now established at Bath. The rules and orders of the society appear to be judiciously framed; and the premiums, in the various departments, are assigned to such discoveries as would prove of great public utility.

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T H E

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *June*, 1780.

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*Isaac Newtoni Opera quæ extant omnia. Commentariis illustrata Samuel Horsley, LL. D. R. S. S. Sc. 4to. 5l. 5s. Subscription for the whole Set. Vol. II. Nichols, Conant, &c.*

**I**N this second volume of Dr. Horsley's edition of Newton, we are presented with the first two books of the MATHEMATICAL PRINCIPLES OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, the most celebrated, and the most important work of the great author.

Three editions of this work were published in the author's life-time, under his own inspection; so that it may justly be considered as one of his most finished pieces. It is by no means, however, so perfect as to render a mathematical comment unnecessary, even to mathematicians; since there are to be found, especially in the Scholia, many theorems and precepts for the solution of problems, which the author has delivered entirely without demonstration; many theorems are also stated as corollaries (without proof), which by no means obviously follow from the propositions on which they are founded; and of those which are deduced in a demonstrative form, many contain merely some detached principles, sufficient to direct very skilful readers, and such only, how to frame a demonstration by connecting them.

Besides these deficiencies, arising from the author's brevity, there occurs frequently, in his most finished demonstrations, especially those of length, an inelegant harshness, and even a degree of obscurity, which can only be ascribed to the freedom with which he has sometimes introduced computative steps into geometrical reasonings; a licence probably owing to the impressions of his early studies, which were formed on Descartes, Wallis, and other algebraical writers, then at the height of

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their reputation, and whose methods, notwithstanding his subsequent acquaintance with, and taste for, the writers on pure geometry, were perhaps become too habitual to be ever wholly laid aside.

To supply the omissions, and to confirm the plan of the author, by rendering his conclusions completely evident and perspicuous, wherever evidence or perspicuity was wanting, seem to have been the present editor's chief objects; whose comment is confined to mathematical disquisitions alone, in which it essentially differs from the work of the learned fathers Jacquier and le Seur: it will be found, notwithstanding, to contain much curious knowledge, and (while it modestly pretends only to the illustration of the author) to afford, at the same time, some very eminent proofs of the abilities of the editor.

Not to mention the attention with which he has supplied those steps that were omitted in the author's demonstrations, he has often been occasionally led by his subject to new and masterly theorems, of general use and importance; which, though delivered in the form of corollaries, as arising out of the author's propositions, have many of them also the weight of new principles, from their extensive application and utility: as these are chiefly the editor's own, they are for the most part marked with his initial, as it should seem, for distinction. Some of the most remarkable are those on the doctrine of centripetal forces, one of which is the sequel to note (l) page 51. and is found in the Addenda; and that which follows after note (dd) page 83. also the two corollaries subjoined to note (c) p. 224. in the latter of which, in particular, is contained a very concise and elegant demonstration of a principle in physics, concerning the law of the attraction of a sphere, which, though by no means obvious, some writers have assumed without proof, and others attempted to demonstrate with great and unnecessary prolixity.

The theory of bodies moving in various directions, in resisting fluids of various kinds, which forms the most abstruse and important part of the second book, has received from the editor a very copious and skilful elucidation: he has given a complete explication of the first, second, third, and seventh sections, where rectilinear motions are treated of; of the fourth section, which concerns the motion of bodies round a fixed center; and of the twenty-fourth proposition, in the beginning of sect. 6. on which is founded the doctrine of the motions of pendulous bodies in such fluid media: the geometrical distinctness with which he has every where explained so difficult and extensive a theory in physics, is very remarkable; but in no place more conspicuous than in his solution of the problem of the

the solid of least resistance, in his note to the scholium of prop. 34. which, though he modestly ascribes to Maclaurin, as being deduced from the same principles as that in Maclaurin's Fluxions, derives an elegance and perspicuity from the editor's manner of treating it; very superior to fluxionary process; and may serve at once as an example of the advantage of geometrical reasoning wherever it can be used, and of the editor's peculiar taste and skill in applying it to the most difficult subjects.

Frequent instances of the editor's abilities in this respect occur in various places, where he has given new demonstrations of Newton's propositions: as in prop. 4, 16, and 17. of the first book, the last of which is a very elegant and complete example of the solution of a problem by the ancient analysis; see also his explication of prop. 33 and 41. of the same book. Those readers who have skill in the ancient geometrical writers, will be particularly sensible of the merit of the *locus solidus* in page 246, and the more so, if they will compare it with the prolix algebraical methods by which other mathematicians have arrived at the same *locus*.

It is worthy observation, that the editor has made very little use of algebra, or computative process of any kind, whenever the subject has admitted the application of geometrical reasoning: indeed where the quadratures of curves have occurred, he has shewn very properly how to reduce cases of difficulty to the formula in Newton's book of quadratures, which ought to be considered as an elementary book on this subject: on most other occasions he has scrupulously adhered to the use of pure geometry; and has taken every occasion to point out the mistakes into which an injudicious use of computative methods may sometimes lead even skilful mathematicians; particularly in the note subjoined to his demonstration of lemma 3. lib. 2. where he has given some very useful and important observations on the true and genuine application and use of the method of prime and ultimate ratios.

On such propositions of Newton as have been suspected or controverted, the editor has given his sentiments without discovering any partial attachment to his author: particularly in his note on prop. 36. lib. 2. which has been so much discussed by Bernoulli and others; and on the corollaries which follow it: of the truth of this proposition the editor acknowledges his suspicions, and has, therefore, given a confirmation of the theory contained in the subsequent proposition, upon other principles, without the intervention of prop. 36. and deduced from some very elegant theorems of the late learned Dr. Henry Pemberton, which accidentally fell into the hands of the editor, and are now first published.

In treating of the 47th prop. lib. 2. which has also been the subject of disputes on the continent, the editor, after shewing that it depends on an hypothesis which the author has tacitly assumed, offers some ingenious conjectures on the reasons which might have induced him to assume that rather than any other; drawn from the analogy of a tense cord put into vibration, the parts of which in vibrating will preserve the same law which Newton has assumed as the ground of this proposition.

The editor's mathematical acuteness is in no place more conspicuous than in his demonstration of the author's method for finding the place of a planet in an elliptic orbit, in the latter part of the scholium on sect. 6. lib. 1. His manner of de-

ducing the series  $\frac{cc}{2a} + \frac{\pi^2 cc}{4a^3} x - \frac{\pi^2 cc}{4a^5} x^3$ , &c. and of applying it,

when found, to the verification of the author's precepts, has peculiar merit; and it is worthy observation how ingeniously he has pointed out, in his application of this series, the probable reason why Newton made choice of this approximation, in preference to others, apparently more obvious; by shewing that his precepts give the angle sought, not only to a great degree of exactness, but to much greater than could be attained by some other methods of calculation, though derived with more immediate facility from the same series.

An instance of the editor's abilities, equally remarkable, is to be found in his demonstration of the 4th rule, schol. sect. 2. lib. 2. As this proposition depends on the figure of a curve, which is no otherwise defined than by a general relation to other curves which are themselves only generally defined, it is, from its extent, and the difficulty of finding media of proof, by no means one of the most manageable: it is in investigations of this very general nature, that fluxions have their genuine and peculiar use, and the editor's application of them in this place will sufficiently shew how judiciously he is able to employ methods of that kind, whenever the nature of his subject requires it.

It may perhaps be observed that many important places of the author are past over without illustration; yet this may probably be imputed less to accidental than designed omission: to have discussed anew the theory of fluxions in the second lemma of book 2. would have been redundant, after the editor's supplemental treatise *De Geometria Fluxionum* in his first volume: the 4th and 5th sections of the first book are now explained in books of elementary conics, particularly in Dr. Hamilton's elegant treatise: and if it should be objected, that so little is said of prop. 66. and its corollaries, it ought to be observed, that the mathematical conclusions of this proposition are



are not difficult, and that the physical application of them to the lunar theory, has its proper place in a subsequent part of the work.

It remains only to observe, that the execution of the editor's part in this volume, as well as in the former, is in general so masterly, as to render the completion of this edition an event very interesting to the learned world, more especially at this period, when philosophical studies have perhaps lost something of their vigour; and when some superficial men have been attempting to revive the wordy jargon of the Peripatetic school, as a cover for their ignorance of the mathematical sciences, and the genuine principles of nature.

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*A Series of Adventures in the Course of a Voyage up the Red Sea, on the Coasts of Arabia and Egypt; and of a Route through the Deserts of Thebais, hitherto unknown to the European Travellers, in the Year 1777. By Eyles Irwin, Esq. Illustrated with Maps and Cuts. 429, 151. in Boards. Doddsley.*

**T**HAT insatiable curiosity and love of the marvellous and astonishing, which is implanted in our natures, is never so agreeably flattered as by discoveries of unknown tracts, and the relation of strange and perilous adventures; voyages and travels, therefore, especially if written by men of credit and character, are generally read with more avidity than books of any other kind; and amongst these the performance now before us has perhaps as fair a title to success as most of its predecessors. The author, Mr. Eyles Irwin, seems to be an active and spirited young man, of good sense and understanding, with a tender and benevolent heart, who has performed the disagreeable task allotted him by his masters, the East India Company, with great zeal and intrepidity; met with many hair-breadth escapes, and braved innumerable dangers amongst a set of unlettered, barbarous, and perfidious savages, through dangerous and uncultivated deserts, hitherto unknown to the European traveller. Of these he gives an accurate and faithful account, nearly in the form of a diary, in two letters to a beloved lady in England. He sets out on a voyage from Madras to Suez, crosses the Indian Ocean, enters the Red Sea by the straits of Babel-mandel, arrives at Mocha, is driven on the Arabian coast; gets to the Gulph of Suez, but by the treachery of the Arabs is carried to Cosire, a part of Upper Egypt; sets out with the caravan for Ghinnah on the Nile, but is carried by other treacherous guides to Banute; arrives at last at Ghinnah, resolves to pass through the deserts of Thebais, meets with a band of robbers, with whom he makes a treaty,

and proceeds; travels on the banks of the Nile, sees the Pyramids, and arrives at Grand Cairo; gives an account of that city, and its antiquities; embarks for Alexandria, arrives there, gives an account of it; embarks with his companions in a French ship, and comes to Marseilles.

This is a summary detail of the voyage, during which Mr. Irwin met with a number of disagreeable circumstances, and a variety of distress, which well deserved to be recorded, and from which he had the good fortune almost miraculously to escape, and return in health and happiness to his native country.

From this series of adventures we shall select a few of those passages which gave us the most pleasure in the perusal, and which we here subjoin for the entertainment of our readers; and as the xerif of Mecca is a potentate whom we have hitherto known very little of, we shall first quote our author's account of him.

“The Xerif of Mecca is, in most respects, on the footing of the Pope in the earlier days of Christianity. He is sovereign pontiff of the Mahometan church, and a temporal as well as spiritual prince. Since the extinction of the Caliphs, whose apparent successor he is, he holds his dominions as fiefs to the Turk; and is more indebted to the zeal of superstition than to the terror of his arms, for the support of his dignity. A prodigious decline, indeed, from the importance of those Caliphs, who reigned the masters of the Eastern world, and strook the neighbouring kingdoms of the North with dire dismay! But shrunk as he is within the limits of a province, where the Mahometan greatness first originated, the Xerif, in two instances, exceeds the Popes in the fullest plenitude of their power. His honours are hereditary; to possess which, he must prove his descent from the Prophet; and the extent of his influence reaches as far beyond that of the Popes, as the persuasion of Mahomet beyond the Papal tenets. The remotest corners of the East pay homage to his title. The way-worn pilgrim ceaseless toils from Teflis' towers or Mesopotamia's waste, to add his little mite to the treasures of Medina's temple; while Asiatic princes, subahs of Ind, and sultans of the Spicy Isles, which westward bound the Southern ocean, enrich the Prophet's shrine with gems and gold. The large sum of money which our vessel brought for the service of the mosque, as a peace-offering from the nabob of Arcot; on the decease of his daughter, is a corroborating evidence of the enthusiasm of Mussulmen. It amounted to one lack and an half of rupees, which is near 20,000 l. sterling, and was the gift of a prince, whom the world need not be told is so involved in debt, as not to require this drain to exhaust his mortgaged revenues.

“The territories of the Xerif lie in the heart of Arabia, and are about three hundred miles long and one hundred broad. Besides the cities of Mecca and Medina, to which the caravans annually

usually bring the produce of distant countries, his revenues are considerably augmented by the commerce that is carried on with his ports of Yambo and Judda, by the vessels of Africa and India. Whatever sanctity he may pretend to, or indifference to the concerns of this world, like other hypocrites in religion, he prefers his own interest to that of his Maker; and uses his name as an instrument, to advance his own dignity and riches. The caravans, which professedly set out on a pious journey to Mecca, are more encouraged by this Pontiff for the sake of his own glory, than that of the Prophet; as the valuable goods they convey, and the high duties imposed upon the deluded merchants, sufficiently attest. But what persuasion is there among the frail race of mankind, which is not open to perversion, and liable to be disgraced by absurd rites, and idle ceremonies? the divine purity of the Christian religion could not preserve its stream from being tainted, by the machinations of priestcraft, and the intemperance of zeal. Nor is there much difference in the folly of the belief, that sounds salvation on a pilgrimage to the temple of Mecca, or to the house of my lady of Loretto!"

Our author's observation at the conclusion of the extract we have here given is just and well-founded, as are indeed most of his remarks through the course of this work.

The following account of an excellent Arabian diver is curious:

When they came to the supposed place (where an anchor had been sunk), the diver went down in sixteen fathoms, with no other preparation than a weight to his feet, and a piece of wood on his nostrils, to prevent his fetching breath in the water. There was a rope fastened to his arm, by which he gave notice when he wanted to be drawn up. At the signal made, he was run up by his comrades with amazing celerity. He informed the officer that he had seen the anchor at some distance; and taking a rope of sufficient strength to hold it, he dived again to an equal depth, and tied it to the ring of the anchor. Upon weighing it, however, it turned out not to be ours, but a large grapple belonging to the annual Judda vessel, which sailed from hence some months ago. After this disappointment, to make good what he had asserted of his skill, the fellow went down in two-and-twenty fathoms, though the wind began to freshen, and the sea to be ruffled. He staid between two and three minutes under water, according to the watch of the gentleman present. Nay, after he came into the boat, this amphibious creature did not take the pressure from his nostrils for near a minute longer; and appeared not in the least fatigued or discomposed. He affirmed, that upon occasion, he can dive some fathoms deeper; and in a calm day, can see ten fathoms around him. That he can walk about with great ease at the bottom of the sea, and separate branches of coral from the rocks, with an ax or a saw. As a proof of which, he produced a large branch of coral,

which he had taken out of a bay to the northward. I have a piece of this coral in my possession. Anxious as he appeared to be for the recovery of our anchor, we have reason to believe that the poor man had been forbidden by the vizier to get it; as he means to turn it to his own account, after our departure. I am sensible that the divers go to a great depth, in the pearl-fisheries in the Gulph of Persia, where they are assisted by machines of various constructions; but such a marvellous instance as I have related, of natural powers unaided by the efforts of art, should have died in silence for me, had it not fallen, in a manner, under our immediate observation.

It is remarkable that throughout the whole course of Mr. Irwin's travels, the greatest part of the miseries which he suffered arose from the falsehood and treachery of the Arabs, who seem to be greater proficient in the arts of fraud and chicanery than any nation now upon earth, though they are at the same time the most rude and illiterate; so true it is that ignorance and cunning, as well as true wisdom and generosity are for the most part inseparable. After various instances, which our author relates of the baseness and duplicity of this people, we meet with the following, which may give us some idea of the treatment which Mr. Irwin met with from them.

‘ We had not (says he) seen the young shaik all day, and were uneasy at his absence. When he made his appearance, he assured us that he had been employed in our service since we saw him last, and that he only wanted the money, to secure the boat which he had engaged for us. But this information seemed chiefly to be a prelude to his own demands, and we discovered that he was come, like the rest of his countrymen, for a present. Though we had promised him a gratuity conditionally, yet as we placed too much reliance on the oath of an Arab, we hoped to bind him more strongly to us, by an act that favoured of confidence, as well as of bounty. We therefore presented him with twenty dollars; and Mr. Hammond gave him a shawl to which he had taken a liking. He appeared so much struck with this generosity, that he swore by his Prophet, he would not leave the house until a boat was provided for us. We then sent for our host, with whom we had entrusted our boat-hire; but understood from him, that he had just paid it away with the rest of the money to the Banute cavalry, who, on this prompt payment, had relinquished their first demand. Though this story was rather strange, it carried not a suspicious air on the face of it. We saved sixty dollars by the manœuvre, and readily proffered to advance the boat-hire anew. A reys, or nokidah, accompanied the host, who, after some altercation, agreed to let us have a large, commodious boat, to carry us to Cairo, for fifty-five dollars. As the price was considerably increased, we affected to run short of cash, in hopes to impress them with a notion of our being

being too poor to be worth detaining. Accordingly we produced several Indian coins, both of gold and silver, which we desired might be weighed, to make up the sum. Though we let them understand that these were pocket-pieces, which we had preserved through curiosity, I fear this expedient was the means of awakening the avarice of these robbers, and teaching them to expect a hoard of this treasure. On receiving the amount, with five dollars besides, to provide bread and two or three sheep for the voyage, the shaik, our host, and the nokidab, swore in conjunction to the immediate performance of the treaty. But they think, as the poet says of lovers, that "Jove laughs at *Arab* perjuries," and they can swallow the most sacred oaths, without the smallest intention to keep them. And this we found more strongly verified than ever.

On the faith of their promises we had packed up our baggage, and disposed ourselves for our removal. Nine o'clock was the appointed hour, and we waited for it with all the impatience of a bridegroom, who looks forward to the moment which is to crown his fondest wishes. But our watches announced the hour, and no Arabs appeared. We, however, accounted easily for the delay; especially as the natives must find it difficult to ascertain time, in a country where clocks and watches are unknown. Ten o'clock came, and brought no intelligence of them. Our suspense now began to be cruel; and we sent Abdul Ruffar downstairs, to enquire what was become of the host and his companions. He returned without having obtained any other tidings, than their being still abroad. It is impossible to give the reader an idea of our situation during this interval. We were assembled on a terrace that was open to the air, and had no other light than what the stars afforded us. The worst interpretation was put upon their absence, by some of our company. Ibrahim began to despair; and Abdul Ruffar himself could not account for the conduct of his countrymen. Tired out with fruitless expectation, we stretched ourselves upon our carpets, and endeavoured to compose ourselves to rest. In the midst of our disordered slumbers, we were suddenly alarmed; about midnight, by a noise at the outward gate of the house. We heard the door open, and the sound of a man's feet hastily ascend the stairs. Hope hung upon his steps; and when we beheld our host enter with a light in his hand, we called out, as if with one voice, that we were ready to attend him. Judge ye, who have ever experienced the fallacy of appearances in matters nearest to the heart—judge of our emotions, when we found, that, instead of a boag being in readiness to carry us away, the vizier and his train were below! The late hour, our recent disappointment, and the surprise which this news threw us into, operated together to render us very unfit to receive these unwelcome visitants. But we had not even time to enquire into the meaning of this intrusion, when the vizier entered. He was accompanied by all the officers who were with him in the morning; but his retinue was  
now

now enlarged by a number of soldiers, each of whom bore a torch in his hand. They seated themselves, without waiting to be asked, on the carpets which we had risen from; and calling for our interpreter, the vizier desired him to tell us, that he was come to levy a duty on the goods and jewels that we had with us: that he and the council of state had formed a resolution to demand no more than 4,000 dollars; and if we refused to pay so moderate a sum, they must send us to their master, the Shaik-Ul-Arab, who was then on the frontiers of his dominions, to answer for our refusal. The exorbitancy of the demand made us great it in a light manner; and as to our taking another journey upon camels, we declared it was better to die here, than to fall a sacrifice to the fatigues of the Arabian method of travelling. We told them our baggage lay ready for their inspection, and they might soon satisfy themselves of our poverty. Whether this confident behaviour impressed them with an idea of our sincerity, or that their designs were not ripe for execution, we cannot pronounce; but the vizier declined the search. He however politely insinuated, that a shawl or two would be very acceptable to him. I had two fine ones belonging to my Turkish dress, which had stood me in 100 dollars. These I produced without hesitation, though I declared truly they were all I had, when I presented them to the vizier. On receiving them, the minister begged us to be easy, as he now considered us to be under his protection; and would give us a pass in the morning for our safety down the river. When he had taken his leave, we reproached our host for the failure of his word. But he shifted the blame from himself to the vizier, who, he assured us, had put a stop to our voyage for this night. He repeated his former assertions, that the boat was ready for our reception. In short, he drew so flattering a picture of the vizier's good intentions towards us, and expressed such a zeal for our service, that he obtained his ends of getting a shawl himself from Major Alexander, and of lulling us once more into a transient security.

On this and some other events of a similar nature Mr. Irwin makes this remark:

For my own part, I had been so mortified at the depravity of human nature, which, in the shape of our landlord and his associates, had not only violated the rights of hospitality, but repeatedly broken the most tremendous oaths which could be taken in the sight of a just God, that I was tempted at times to disown my alliance to such a race. Oppressed by one part of it, and unassisted by another, whose religion should have enforced their compassion towards us, it is not surprising that we beheld them with an eye of abhorrence and distrust. We had experienced that there was no safety among them, and to the interposition of the divine Power alone, could we look for our deliverance.

Our

Our author, however, has at last the satisfaction of meeting with an honest man, the Shaik-Abu-Ally, who made him ample reparation for the damages which he had sustained, and the injuries he had received from the good Shaik's deputies and inferior agents, who like other ministers of great potentates had abused the power they were invested with. Mr. Irwin speaks of this illustrious personage in the warm terms of approbation which he so highly deserved.

As virtue as well as vice is magnified by comparison, it will not appear extraordinary, that our encensing regard for this great man began to border upon enthusiasm. Reader! if thou art of the yielding kind, if thy mould is susceptible of tender impressions—say, when surrounded by a croud of homely females, did thy heart never beat high at the approach of transcendent beauty? So, from the cloud of miscreants that encompassed his throne, shot forth the glories of the Egyptian king! So bright, so peerless did he rise from the contrast. So unworthily stationed, and yet so worthy of the station in which his birth had placed him! Nursed in the lap of ignorance and barbarism, like another Peter, he had triumphed over nature. Nor opinion could warp, nor habit could bind him. He nobly spurned the prejudices of education, and, without any guide, save the impulse of innate goodness, he soared to the superior heights of virtue. She seemed the mistress of his inclinations, rather than of his election or interest; and, beside him, the world may afford but few subjects of such an influence. It is true, that his endeavours were not crowned with the success that distinguished those of Peter the Great. But Peter attended more to the aggrandisement than the morals of his people; and, with all the great qualities of the hero, sunk infinitely below the Egyptian, in the feelings of the man. The latter was fit to have ruled over an enlightened empire. While the former, after all his victories, was, in many respects, an example unworthy of imitation!

Our readers will perhaps be concerned to hear that this illustrious character, whom our historian has celebrated, and who seems indeed to be almost the only honest man he met with in those regions, had soon after, as we learn in the postscript, his head cut off by Morad Beg, one of the candidates for the empire of Egypt.—Mr. Irwin's pleasant voyage down the Nile, in his return home, made him some amends for the difficulties and distresses which he met with in his stay at Cairo, and in the deserts of Thebais, and he arrived safely in England at the close of the year 1777.

These Adventures, though not very interesting or important, are upon the whole entertaining; and, considering the youth and inexperience of the author, not ill written.

Mr.

Mr. Irwin, who has \* already appeared as a poet, in an appendix to these Travels subjoins two very pretty odes, one to the Desert of Thebais, the other to the Nile. We shall conclude this article with a short extract from the latter, which will give our readers no unfavourable impression of his poetical talents, which, if properly cultivated and improved, may hereafter produce something well worthy of the public attention.

• Immortal stream! whom Afric leads  
Through barren plains and verdant meads;  
Now flaming o'er the Nubian sands,  
Now laving Egypt's cultur'd lands;

• To mark where first thou court'st the gale,  
The poet's stretch of thought might fail:  
Might heroes shudder to behold  
The wonders which thy depths unfold.

• O! place me on thy gentle tide,  
When first it leaves its fountain wide;  
Till, threatening on the Cat'ra's brow,  
It rushes to the world below.

• Here, as the joyless wild we trace,  
Where nature shrouds her beauteous face,  
The ostrich—child of want and gloom!  
Dips in thy wave his silver plume.

The rest of the Ode is equal if not superior to this.

*Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c. selected from the Correspondence-Book of the Society instituted at Bath, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, within the Counties of Somerset, Wilts, Gloucester, and Dorset, and the City and County of Bristol. To which is added, An Appendix; containing, A Proposal for the further Improvement of Agriculture. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Dilly.*

Concerning the design of this work, we are informed, that in the autumn of the year 1777, several gentlemen met at the city of Bath, and formed a society for the encouragement of agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce, in the counties of Somerset, Wilts, Gloucester, Dorset, and the city of Bristol. The usefulness of this plan procured it immediate approbation, which was testified not only by liberal subscriptions, but by many literary communications, both scien-

\* See our critique on *Eastern Eclogues* in the Review for February, p. 153.



title and practical. It is the design of the society to publish such papers as appear most likely to improve the economical arts; but the members of the society, as a body, mean not to vouch for the truth of any relation, or to give authority to any opinion contained in those publications, farther than the notes express, and to recommend them as subjects of enquiry.

We are likewise informed, that in order to bring theory to the test of practice with the utmost certainty, the society has taken a quantity of land into its own hands, for the purpose of making experiments in agriculture, under the immediate direction of a committee, who will keep an accurate daily register of their progress, expences, and success, in each experiment; to be published in the next volume of their *Memoirs*.

The four first articles in the present volume relate to the practice lately introduced in the county of Norfolk of setting wheat; a method which appears to be attended with great advantage. The following is the account of it, as delivered in the *Memoirs*.

\* Gentlemen,

\* It is with much pleasure that I now answer your enquiries relative to the practice of setting wheat in this county. It is, in my opinion, one of the greatest improvements in husbandry, that hath taken place this century; and, were it generally adopted throughout the kingdom, would be attended with very great advantages to the public.

\* The setting of wheat seems to have been first suggested by planting grains in a garden from mere curiosity, by persons who had no thought or opportunity of extending it to a lucrative purpose; and I do not remember its being attempted on a larger scale, till a little farmer near Norwich began it about twelve years since, upon less than one acre of land. For two or three years only a few followed his example; and these were generally the butt of their neighbours' merriment for adopting so singular a practice. They had, however, considerably better and larger crops than their neighbours; this, together with the saving in seed, engaged more to follow them; while some ingenious persons, observing its great advantage, recommended and published its utility in the *Norwich papers*. These recommendations had their effect; the curiosity and enquiry of the *Norfolk farmers* (particularly round *Norwich*) were excited, and they found sufficient reason to make general experiments. Among the rest was one of the largest occupiers of lands in this county, who set fifty-seven acres in one year. His success, from the visible superiority of his crop, both in quantity and quality, was so great, that the following autumn he set three hundred acres, and has continued the practice ever since. This noble  
expe-

experiment established the practice, and was the means of introducing it generally among the intelligent farmers in a very large district of land; there being few who now sow any wheat, if they can procure hands to set it. It has been generally observed, that although the set crops appear very thin during the autumn and winter, the plants tiller and spread prodigiously in the spring. The ears are indisputably larger, without any dwarfish or small corn; the grain is of a larger fathom, and specifically heavier per bushel, than when sown.

The lands on which this method is particularly prosperous are, either after a clover stubble, or on which trefail and grass seed were sown the spring before the last, and on which cattle have been from time to time pastured during the summer.

These grounds, after the usual mowing, are once turned over by the plough in an extended flag, or turf, at ten inches wide; along which a man, who is called a dibler, with two setting-irons, somewhat bigger than ram-rods, but considerably bigger at the lower end, and pointed at the extremity, steps backwards along the turf and makes the holes about four inches asunder every way, and an inch deep. Into these holes the droppers (women, boys, and girls) drop two grains, which is quite sufficient. After this, a gate, bushed with thorns, is drawn by one horse over the land, and closes up the holes. By this mode, three pecks of grain is sufficient for an acre; and being immediately buried, it is equally removed from vermin, or the power of frost. The regularity of its rising gives the best opportunity of keeping it clear from weeds, by wetting or hand-hoing.

In a word, this practice is replete with greater utility than any that has been made in the agricultural art. In a parochial view, it merits the highest attention, as it tends greatly to lessen the rates, by employing the aged and children, at a season too when they have little else to do. It saves to the farmer, and to the public, six pecks of seed wheat in every acre, which, if nationally adopted, (without considering the superior produce) would afford bread for more than half a million of people.

The expence of setting by hand is now reduced to about six shillings an acre, and a very complete drill plough has lately been introduced among us, and found to answer extremely well, by which the difficulty of getting hands is obviated, and the expence lessened, as with this plough one man can set an acre per day. The maker is Mr. James Blancher, of Attleborough, in Norfolk.

We next meet with three papers on the culture of potatoes, which are followed by the state of agriculture in the Isle of Wight; and the latter by a short account of the disease called the goggles in sheep. We are told, that within these few years, this disease has been observed in various parts of Wiltshire, and in some has made great havoc. The sheep most  
subject

subject to it are *two teeth*. It is not infectious, but hereditary. It most resembles the staggers in lambs, but with this difference, that as staggers lambs show a weakness before, and fall forward, goggly sheep shew a weakness behind, and fall backward, when forced to run. On being seized with the disease their ears drop, and they rub their tails much more than other sheep. They gradually decline in flesh and strength, till they cannot drag their limbs behind them, and at length die.

The succeeding papers are, a Description of Mr. Boswell's newly invented machine for raking summer corn stubbles; on the cultivation of clover; the society's queries, with answers to them, from the sheriff of the county of Suffolk; on the effects of marl in Norfolk; method of making reservoirs in dry countries, for watering sheep and cattle; experiments on plants eaten or rejected by cattle, sheep, and hogs; on the bulk and increase of some remarkable timber trees; on the best method of raising elms for fences, manuring fallows for wheat, and preventing the ravages of the fly in young turneps; on a peculiar species of grass found in Wiltshire; observations on thistles; on a disease to which the stock lambs in Norfolk are liable, from eating self-sown barley in autumn; observations on the myniam moss; account of the cultivation of Siberian barley; on the effects of fern ashes as a manure for wheat land; on the cultivation of heathy ground; instructions for the prevention and cure of the epizooty, or contagious distemper among horned cattle. We shall lay before our readers this useful paper, which is translated from the French of Mons. de Saive, apothecary to the bishop of Liege.

“Farmers have no need to be informed, how important a matter the preservation of their cattle is. The considerable advantages they reap from them when free from accidents, and the losses they suffer when distempers spread among their herds, are sufficient motives to make them feel the interest they have in preserving their cow-houses, stables, &c. from infection, and in using all possible means to prevent its progress. But as fatal experience has proved that the use of medicines, with the powers of which they were not well acquainted, has been frequently more prejudicial than salutary in the epizooty; and that country people by placing an unlimited confidence in pretended specifics, purchased at a very high price, have very often been drawn into a double loss, by the death of their cattle, as well as the expence of such drugs; it is thought the communication of an efficacious and cheap manner of treating cattle when attacked by this distemper, and of the means to prevent their being so, will be rendering an essential service to the public.

“The moment they perceive any symptoms of the distemper, they should immediately take about a pint and a half of blood from

from the beast, except he has been ill a day or two, in which case he must not be let blood; but in both cases let the following draught be given:

‘ No. 1. An ounce of the best theriac (Venice treacle) dissolved in a pint of vinegar, after which the back bone and the whole hide must be well rubbed with a dry hair cloth, to heat the hide and promote perspiration. No drink should be given him but a white drink, composed of

‘ No. 2. A handful or two of rye-meal in a pailful of clear water; and, should the beast seem to want food, mix up some crumbs of rye-bread with some of the said white drink, and give it him. The animal’s mouth must be washed twice a day with a cloth dipped in a mixture of

‘ No. 3. Vinegar and water, (equal quantity of each) with a spoonful of honey to a pint of it.

‘ If on the second day the beast has not dunged, a clyster, composed of

‘ No. 4. A pint of water in which bran has been boiled, two spoonfuls of salt, and a small glass of vinegar, must be given and repeated every day till the evacuations are natural and regular.

‘ Besides the above remedies, the following cordial mixture:

‘ No. 5. A pint of clear water, the same quantity of vinegar, four spoonfuls of honey or syrup, and two glasses of brandy, — must be given four times a day to facilitate and keep up perspiration; taking particular care to repeat the friction as directed above.

‘ Should the beast still continue low and heavy, the draught No. 1. must be repeated, unless he should be found to be hot and thirsty, in which case, use only the drink No. 2. On the fourth day, if he seems more lively and free from heat, purge him with,

‘ No. 6. Two ounces of salts, and one ounce of common salt, dissolved in a pint of lukewarm water, with two spoonfuls of honey. If this does not procure four or five evacuations, repeat the clyster the same day.

‘ This mode of treatment must be continued without intermission till the beast begins to eat, then you must only give him the white drink No. 2, and a little good fodder, or some rye-bread dipped in stale beer, moderately sweetened with honey or syrup.

‘ The exterior treatment consists in the application of setons in the beginning of the distemper, at the bottom of the dewlap, and of cauteries towards the horns, between which some weight must be fixed, such as, stone of a pound weight, or more, wrapt up in a cloth, to keep it steady. This is necessary to keep the head warm. But above all, the friction must be closely attended to, in order to determine the critical efforts of nature.

‘ It would be well also to evaporate vinegar in the cow-house, &c. and if it could be done without risque, blowing off a few grains

grains of gunpowder, twice a-day in them, would be a very useful fumigation.

‘ If, notwithstanding these aids, the beast be not perfectly cured in ten or twelve days, they must be continued without bleeding, unless the inflammation be very considerable; but if, after all, the distemper does not give way, the beast must be killed, and then too much care cannot be taken to bury it very deep, cover it over with the earth which came out of the hole, and a turf over all, in order to prevent the putrid vapours, which exhale from such carrion, corrupting the air and spreading the infection.

‘ As to the preservatives from infection, the principal, after having taken every precaution possible to prevent its communication from other herds, consists in washing the racks, troughs, &c. and the hide of the beast every day, with plenty of water; and, as the generality of people seem to place great confidence in strong aromatic fumigations, they are advised, instead of the expensive drugs of which such fumigations are composed, to use fires made with the branches of green wood, throwing pitch on it to quicken the flames and perfume the air; these fires must be lighted at some distance from the houses, for fear of accidents.

‘ Common salt, given in small quantities every day to horned cattle, is reckoned an excellent preservative, particularly in a learned dissertation on the contagious distempers among horned cattle, by M. de Limbourg, M. D. and F. R. S. of London. It should be observed, that though the report of an epizooty is often spread, yet all the disorders to which cattle are liable should not be attributed to this epidemical distemper, since they are not exempted from this even when no contagious distemper reigns. Therefore, when a beast is taken ill, enquiry should be made if the infection is in the neighbourhood, as in such case, a suspicion of its being the epizooty would be well grounded, and immediate recourse should be had to the remedies above mentioned.

‘ But, as it often happens that cattle fall sick after having eaten bad fodder, or having grazed in frosty weather on the tops of herbs, &c. when covered with ice and snow, (to prevent their doing which, all possible care should be taken) to these accidents only are frequently to be attributed the sickness and death of many beasts which fall victims to them.

‘ There is another accident no less dangerous, to which cattle are liable, which is, the washing them with waters prepared with different sorts of poisons, especially with arsenic, to kill the vermin; these waters occasion an itching of the skin, which obliges the animal to lick himself; in doing which he sucks in the poison. It is evident, that such pernicious practices may occasion as fatal disasters and unhappy losses to farmers, as even the epizooty itself; it cannot, therefore, be too much recommended to them, to forbear the use of such things, which never fail doing the mischief above described.’

The subjects next treated are, the Construction and Use of Machines for floating Pastures, and for Draining wet Lands; on the Use of Soaper's Ashes and Feathers as Manures; on Planting boggy Soils with Ash, and the Slopes of Hills with Forest-Trees; Mode of cultivating Turnips in Suffolk; on Raising Potatoes from Seed; on the Mode and Advantages of extracting the Essence of Oak Bark for tanning Leather; on Drilling Pease; on a new Oil Manure; Mode of weaning and rearing Calves, by a Norfolk Farmer; on raising a Crop of White Oats and Grass Seeds; Answers to the Society's printed Queries from Gloucestershire; on the great Increase of Milk, from feeding Cows with Saintfoin; on the Success attending the Planting Moor-land with Ash-Trees; on the Use of stagnant Water, as Manure; on the Management of Clover in Suffolk; Thoughts on the Rot in Sheep; on the Cultivation of Rhubarb; on the Extirpation of Plants noxious to the Cattle on dairy and grazing Farms; on the Culture of Carrots; on the best Mode of destroying Vermin, and preventing young Turnips from being destroyed by the Fly; Abridgement of several Letters published by the Agriculture Society at Manchester, in Consequence of a Premium offered for Discovering the Cause of the curled Disease in Potatoes; Description of, and Observations upon the Cockchaffer, both in its Grub and Beetle-state. The Appendix contains a Proposal for the Improvement of Agriculture; and a Translation of M. Hirzel's Letter to Dr. Tissot, in Answer to M. Linguet's Treatise on Bread-corn and Bread.

The design with which this society is instituted deserves great commendation, and cannot fail of promoting the discovery, as well as diffusing the knowledge, of agricultural improvements.

*An Attempt to ascertain and illustrate the Authority, Nature, and Design of the Institution of Christ commonly called the Lord's Supper. By William Bell, D.D. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Robson.*

EVERY person, who has a due regard for Christianity, must undoubtedly wish to form a proper notion of that religious rite, which we call the sacrament; as it was instituted in the most solemn manner by Christ himself, and emphatically recommended to the observance of all his followers to the end of the world. But this rite, though it seems to be extremely plain and simple in its nature, has been grossly misrepresented, and occasioned more disputes, than perhaps any other subject of theological controversy. Not to mention the extravagant absurdities in this article, maintained by the church of

Rome, many unscriptural notions, concerning its nature and efficacy, have been entertained by our reformed divines. It has been called a sacrifice, a feast upon a sacrifice, and a federal rite. It has been supposed to confer supernatural grace; it has been considered as a viaticum in the hour of death; and, which is a convenient cover for any kind of absurdity, it has been styled a sacred and tremendous mystery \*.

The treatise we are now considering is an attempt to rescue this important rite from mistake and uncertainty; and to reduce the points in question, as near as may be, to demonstration, by examining the only sources of information, from which a true knowledge of it can be authentically deduced, the history of its institution, and other passages, in which it is occasionally mentioned, in the New Testament.

The fundamental principles here enforced, with respect to the nature and effects of this institution, have been maintained by the well-known Mr. John Hales of Eton, and by a late eminent prelate, in a celebrated tract, intitled, *A Plain Account of the Nature and End of the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper*; in which the author has exploded the technical terms of scholastic divinity, and opened a way for a more liberal examination of this interesting subject.

The first point, which the author of the present tract endeavours to evince, is, that the Lord's Supper was not instituted by Jesus for the observation of the apostles alone, but was enjoined by him for a standing rite of his religion, to be perpetually celebrated by all who should ever profess themselves his disciples. This he proves from the words of the institution, the circumstances attending it, and the account which St. Paul gives of it, in his first Epistle to the Corinthians.

This circumstance being ascertained, the author establishes the following propositions:

\* The Lord's Supper having been instituted by Jesus, without his annexing any special benefits to the celebration of it, the benefits certainly arising from the due celebration of it can be no other than these:

1<sup>st</sup>, That approbation of the Almighty, which a voluntary obedience to his commands, upon the sincere principles of religion and piety, must certainly procure: and

2<sup>dly</sup>, Whatever strengthening of our principles and habits of virtue will naturally arise from the serious and due performance of a rite, in which the death of our Lord, and the general purpose for which he died, are the very things commemorated.

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\* Tremendum hoc mysterium. August.

‘ The Lord’s Supper having been instituted by Jesus without his annexing any special evils to the omission of it, the evils unavoidably incurred by the omission of it can be no other than these :

‘ 1st, That disapprobation of the Almighty, which designed disobedience to, or the careless neglect of his commands, must certainly occasion : and

‘ 2dly, The loss of all that improvement of our virtuous habits and dispositions, which would naturally arise from the serious and due performance of a rite, in which the death of our Lord, and the general purpose for which he died, are the very things commemorated.

‘ The demerits of a thoughtless, light, unworthy manner of celebrating the Lord’s Supper, must wholly depend upon the actual ill principles and intention ; or at least the culpable want of good principles, and a good intention ; in every particular instance, and in each particular person ; of which God alone can judge.

‘ The Lord’s Supper having been instituted without any special punishments annexed to a thoughtless, light, unworthy manner of celebrating it ; the punishment incurred by such a manner of receiving it must be regulated by the personal demerits of each individual in each particular instance.

‘ Should any one be sincerely convinced, that the Lord’s Supper was not instituted by Jesus for a standing rite of his religion, but merely for the observance of the apostles themselves who were present at the institution ; no punishment whatever will be incurred by him for omitting to celebrate it under this persuasion ; but he must be answerable for the honest, or dishonest use he made of his understanding, in consequence of which he embraced this opinion.’

‘ —Partaking of the Lord’s Supper, does,’ he says, ‘ so far contribute to our future salvation, as it is a designed compliance with an express command of our Lord, naturally productive of benefits before explained. But the performance of this rite has no influence peculiar to itself, in procuring for us the remission of our sins ; nor can it at all contribute towards our obtaining their remission, by any other means, than the virtuous effects we take care to make it productive of, in our principles and our practice.

‘ Refusing to partake of the Lord’s Supper does so far endanger our salvation, as it is in any instance an act of voluntary disobedience to an acknowledged command of our Lord, naturally productive of the evils already described. And performing the outward actions of eating and drinking at the Lord’s Supper, without seriously reflecting upon the particular events commemorated in it, and the influence they ought to have upon our own conduct, does so far endanger our salvation, as it contains in each distinct instance a certain degree of want of religious principle, and a culpable insensibility of the suffer-



sufferings of our Lord, and the blessings of our redemption; of the guilt of which, in every distinct instance, God alone is the proper judge.

‘If ever the bread and wine,’ continues our author, ‘are received, whether by the well, the sick, or the dying, as an appointed means of obtaining the remission of sins; or in any other light than merely as an act of due obedience to a positive command of our Lord, naturally expressive of faith in him; and, when seriously performed, as naturally conducive to all such dispositions as that faith requires, the participant is deceived, and the rite itself perverted.’

As the author pursues his enquiry through a series of distinct, though connected propositions, drawn up in a close argumentative form, it is impossible for us to do adequate justice to his reasoning by detached quotations; we shall therefore subjoin the conclusion, which contains a general view of the argument, and the author's notions respecting the authority, the nature, and design of the Lord's Supper.

‘If the principles above laid down are true, and the consequences drawn from them just; it follows,

‘That the Lord's Supper is a rite of the simplest and plainest nature, perfectly intelligible to every capacity.

‘That it is nothing more than what the words of the institution fully express, a religious commemoration of the sufferings and death of Christ, and the general purpose for which he died;—which it is the absolute duty of every one who believes in him to celebrate, because he himself enjoined it;—and which requires nothing more for its worthy celebration, than that intentional obedience, and serious disposition of mind, which deliberate reflection upon the particulars commemorated in it will naturally produce.

‘That as the performance of it is not attended with any other benefits, than those we ourselves take care to make it productive of, by its religious influence on our principles and practice; so nothing but our want of seriousness and good intention in performing it can possibly make it productive of any danger or evil.

‘That as its primary object is the commemoration of the sufferings of our Lord in accomplishing the adopted plan of our redemption, we ought always to be disposed to assist at it, with the same readiness, the same thankfulness, and the same ease and satisfaction of mind, with which we offer up our thanksgivings to God in our constant acts of worship.

‘And, in fine, that though it is left to our own discretion how often to celebrate it, nothing can so well manifest our proper ideas of, and attention to it, as an habitual performance of it, whenever an opportunity is purposely afforded us; while an habitual omission of it, when set before us, must unavoidably convict us, either of ignorance of its universal and perpetual oblige-

obligation ; some misconception of its nature and effects ; or an intentional disobedience to a positive Christian duty.—The injunction of our Lord is always a reason for performing it ; and, if, rightly understood, there cannot be any good reason for avoiding it ; consistently with those principles which habitually influence the conduct of a man of virtue, and upon which whoever professes himself a Christian would be understood to act.’

To this treatise the author has annexed an appendix, and notes, in which he has discussed every point of difficulty that would otherwise have embarrassed the question, or interrupted the argument.

The words *κοινωνία*, 1 Cor. x. 16. *κοινωνες*, v. 18. 20. and *ματεχειν*, v. 17. 21. 30. have given occasion to most of the notions which have been embraced, of something mysterious in the nature of the Lord's supper.

These terms, as the author proves at large, signify the participation of the bread and wine, and nothing more. When St. Paul would express the idea of the *joint* partaking of more than one in any person or thing, he distinguishes his meaning by prefixing to the foregoing words the particle *συν*, Rom. xi. 17. 1 Cor. ix. 23. Eph. v. 11. Phil. i. 7. iv. 14, &c.

In order to express the true sense of St. Paul, and nothing but his sense, ver. 16. must, he thinks, be translated in this manner :

‘ The partaking of the cup of blessing, which we bless, is it not, to each of us, the partaking of the memorial of the blood of Christ ? The partaking of the bread, which we break, is it not, to each of us, the partaking of the memorial of the body of Christ ?’

The only particular which can lead us to doubt whether the Lord's supper has not something more in its nature than we have yet been able to discover, must be this, that it is declared, 1 Cor. xi. 27. whoever shall eat and drink *unworthily*, or without suitable serious reflection and behaviour, shall be guilty of the body and blood of the Lord. But our author observes, that in the passage under consideration, *ενοχος εσαι του σωματος*, as well as in James ii. 10. *γεγορε παντων ενοχος*, which is exactly similar to it, must be rendered, offends against, affronts, shews a disrespect to : or, still more fully, is guilty of offending against, guilty of affronting, guilty of shewing a disrespect to, &c. Not absolutely guilty of the body and blood of Christ, in the one instance, or guilty of all the commandments in the other.

Dr. Cudworth, in his discourse concerning the Lord's supper, endeavours to prove, that this rite is *epulum sacrificiale*, or *epulum ex oblatis*, i. e. a feast upon sacrifice. Our author refutes this notion, and recapitulates his own observations in this manner :

‘ Since

\* Since the Jewish feasts upon sacrifices actually were, and the pagan were understood to be, to all who partook of them, actual atonements, or appointed means of atonement, for those sins respectively, on account of which the sacrifices themselves were offered up; and since, in the Christian dispensation, there is not any rite or action enjoined, the celebration and performance of which is there appointed, or considered, as an atonement for any sins, so as that the remission of any sins is the proper, or even the possible effect, of the performance of such action, or the celebration of such rite, it follows unavoidably, that no rite of the Christian religion can possibly be of the same nature; and have the same effects with the Jewish and pagan feasts upon sacrifice; and consequently, that the Lord's supper cannot be the same among Christians, in respect to the Christian sacrifice, that among the Jews the feasts upon the legal sacrifices were, and among the Gentiles the feasts upon the idol sacrifices; that is, cannot be specifically a feast upon sacrifice.'

The bishop of Meaux's argument against interpreting the words of the institution, as signifying nothing more than that the bread and wine were to be taken as representatives and memorials of the body and blood, is as follows, in bishop Warburton's translation: 'When Jesus Christ said, this is my body, this is my blood, he was neither propounding a parable, nor explaining an allegory—the business in hand was the institution of a new rite, which required the use of simple terms,' &c.

To obviate this remark, our author observes, that the very same mode of expression is used at the institution of the Passover, 'This is the Lord's Passover.'

In a note the author subjoins this observation:

\* It is a fact well worthy of remark, and such as deserves the most serious reflection of all whom it concerns, that while a very great proportion of the Christian world have been required to believe, and actually have believed the real presence and transubstantiation in the Lord's supper, no Jew was ever yet wild enough to conceive the thought, or dishonest enough to inculcate the belief of a real presence or transubstantiation in the passover.'

Here the author does not say, that no Jew ever conceived a transubstantiation of the paschal lamb into the *action* of the Lord's passing over the houses of the Israelites; but, that no Jew ever inculcated the belief of a real presence in the passover.

Bishop Warburton, on this occasion, speaks of 'the *hardness* of the figure.' But our author very properly observes, that when the disciples saw our Saviour whole and unhurt before them, it was impossible for them to consider the words in question as spoken to them in any other than a figurative sense.

And when it is considered, that Jesus, and they to whom he addressed himself, had just been celebrating the Jewish pass-

over, the most signal memorial in that religion, at the very time when he instituted this rite for a memorial of himself in his own, it must surely be confessed, that nothing could be more natural, than that he should institute This in a form of expression similar to the form which had been made use of in the institution of that, and which every Jew, without exception, understood in an exactly similar figurative sense.

This is an excellent tract, free from all appearance of bigotry and superstition, written with candor and moderation, and, at the same time, a perspicuity and force of reasoning, which must give ample satisfaction to every impartial and intelligent reader.

*A Harmony of the Evangelists in English; with critical Dissertations, an occasional Paraphrase, and Notes for the Use of the Unlearned.* By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 4to. 12s. boards. Johnson.

**I**N this English edition of the Harmony of the Evangelists, the text is a copy of the Greek \*; the entire history, with all the incidents and discourses, collected from the four Evangelists, being distinguished by a larger character, and the collateral accounts of the same things being printed on a smaller type, in separate columns, so that they may be read and compared, or omitted at pleasure.

The author has corrected the common version, wherever he thought it necessary, either for the sake of rectifying misrepresentations, or changing some obsolete words and phrases: He has, however, informed the reader of every material alteration, except in those instances in which he has made a constant change; as, *Holy Spirit* for *Holy Ghost*, *daemon* for *devil*, when the original is *δαίμων*, &c.

The passages which require explanation are illustrated with notes, partly collected from preceding commentators, partly written by Dr. Priestley himself, and partly communicated by learned friends, Mr. Turner of Wakefield, Dr. Jebb, &c.

Where the connection is not very apparent, the author has subjoined a paraphrase, which seems to be better calculated to explain the context, than criticisms in the form of notes.

He has every where supposed what is called Satan, or the devil, in the gospels, to be an allegorical personage, or the principle of evil personified. Some will think this a bold and unnatural interpretation: but, he says:

\* See an Account of the Greek Harmony in the Critical Review, vol. xlv. p. 428.

Let those persons who think that it is so, only consider the repeated and strong personification of the Holy Spirit, or Comforter, as a being sent by the Father or the Son, and by some thought to be the Third Person in the Trinity; and yet that it is now generally supposed to mean nothing more than a *divine power*, or *energy*; and perhaps they will not think the personification stronger or harsher in the one case, than in the other.\*

To this Harmony the author has prefixed a Letter to the learned Dr. Newcome, bishop of Ossory †, in which he answers some objections made by his lordship to his plan, and corroborates his hypothesis, that our Saviour's public ministry continued only one year and a few months †, by some additional arguments; among which we find one of considerable weight, taken from the conjecture of Herod, that Jesus must have been John himself risen from the dead, Matth. xiv. 1, 2. Mark vi. 14. It is, he observes, extremely improbable, that Herod should not have been able to distinguish between John and Jesus, on the supposition of our Saviour's having preached so long as the bishop makes him to have done, before the death of John, viz. two years and a half, and two whole years of it after his imprisonment. Whereas Herod may be supposed not to have heard of Jesus during the few weeks, that, according to the notion maintained in the present Harmony, he had preached before the death of John, having probably been engaged in a multiplicity of business or pleasure.

The author has inserted the following letter from the Rev. Mr. Palmer, reconciling this expression of John the Baptist, John i. 31. 'I knew him not,' with these words, Matth. iii. 14. 'I have need to be baptized of thee.'

'John, (says Mr. Palmer) who was the cousin of Jesus, must have been very well acquainted with him before his baptism; he must have known his temper and manner of life, and have entertained great expectations concerning him—It appears to me absurd to suppose the contrary, for reasons which will readily occur to you.—He had learned, as we may reasonably suppose, (from Luke i. 43.) of his mother Elizabeth, that his cousin was a personage much superior to himself; for which reason when Jesus went to be baptized by him, "He forbid him, saying, I have need to be baptized of thee, and comest thou to me?" But by the descent of the Holy Spirit upon Jesus at his baptism John learned farther, that He was the Messiah—He could therefore properly say, "I knew him not" (to be the Messiah) "but he that sent me to baptize with water, the same said unto me, upon whom thou shalt see the Spirit descending, and remaining on him, the same is he who baptizeth with the Holy Spirit,

\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xlv. p. 257.

† Ib. vol. xlv. p. 428.

and

and I saw" (the Spirit descend, &c.) "and bore witness that this (Jesus) is the Son of God," (or the Messiah.)

\* After a careful examination, I think, that no person knew Jesus to be the Messiah, till John bore testimony at his baptism; notwithstanding the high terms used in speaking of him. (See Luke i. 2.)—So strikingly proper are the words, "John came for a witness of the light, that all men might believe; he was not that light, but was sent to bear witness of that light." It appears that after the declaration of the shepherds, "Mary kept all these things, and pondered them in her heart:" and even after Simeon had spoken (as seems to us now) in the most express terms respecting him, still "Joseph and Mary marvelled at those things which were spoken of him." They still were not certain whether it was the Messiah, or some other inferior deliverer or prophet. I do not in the least wonder at their doubts; for as the Messiah was to be a great temporal prince, according to the prevailing opinion, how could persons of so inferior a station in life expect that he would proceed from their family? We may observe, that when he was twelve years old, Joseph and Mary did not know what he meant, by "being about his father's business;" and even then Mary is said to have "kept these sayings in her heart"—still pondering and still doubtful.—His own brothers, even after his baptism, did not believe him to be the Messiah; and I do not think this very surprizing; for children that are brought up together naturally form notions of equality which are pretty obstinate in maintaining their place.—From the uncertainty of Mary, and the infidelity of the brothers, I infer, that those lofty expressions in Luke the first and second concerning Jesus, were not understood as necessarily implying that he was the Messiah; and of course that the application of texts of scripture among the Jews at this time was not descriptive, but merely allusive; which I think it of considerable importance to demonstrate.

\* This interpretation,' says Dr. Priestley, 'I think, really solves the difficulty, and throws considerable light on that part of the evangelical history to which it relates.' It is not, however, a new one. Dr. Macknight observes, "that John did not so much as know Christ's pretensions to the character of the Messiah, till having baptized him, he saw the Spirit descend, and remain upon him." § 18. See also Pole's Synopsis.

Some of the alterations of the text in this edition.

Luke i. 1. Forasmuch as many have taken in hand, Com, Trans.—'Forasmuch as many have undertaken to write a history of things, which *are fully come to pass* among us.' Pr.—Do *πεπληροφορημενα πραγατα* ever signify *things fully come to pass*? or what sense is there in this expression? Do they not always imply, such things as are surely believed, evidently proved, or of which we are fully persuaded? There is a manifest

fest difference between the verbs πληρω and πληροφωρειν. — The next verse favours the common version, 'Even as *they delivered* them unto us, who from the beginning were eye-witnesses,' &c.

Chap. i. 22. Δεμεινα κωφος, Remained speechless, C. T. 'Deaf and dumb,' Pr. — Κωφος signifies both deaf and dumb; and it is observed, that those who are born deaf are also dumb. But this reason does not extend to Zacharias, as he had been deprived of *speech* but a very little time; and the angel only told him that he should be *dumb*, v. 20, 22. The chief reason for our author's version is founded on v. 62. in which it is said, They *made signs* to his father.

Chap. ii. 7. Εν τη φατνη, In a manger, C. T. 'She brought forth her first-born son in a stable,' Pr.

'Sir John Chardin supposes by a manger in this place is meant one of those holes of stone, or good cement, which are to be seen in the stables belonging to the caravanseras in the East, which are large enough to lay a child in; for they have no managers like ours in the East. But he does not say what was the use of the holes he speaks of. Observations on Travels into the East. vol. I. p. 443. But Pearce supposes that by manger may be meant a coarse hair-cloth, out of which the horses eat their corn, as sometimes with us; and that καταλυμα does not necessarily mean an inn, but a great chamber, such a room as that in which our Saviour eat the passover with his disciples, and which is called by the same name.

'I look upon the word φατνη to mean a hovel, or stable; it relates to the three verbs. Literally thus: She brought forth, and wrapped in swaddling-clothes, and laid to rest, her first born son, in a hovel, or outhouse used for cattle, or a barn; for this reason, because the inn itself was full of guests of higher station. Wetstein proves φατνη to mean stabulum. This is a good reason for her being delivered in an outhouse, but none at all for laying the child in a manger. In all probability she laid him to rest either in her lap, or near where she herself lay. I suppose a manger being something like a cradle suggested the idea; v. 12. and 16. seem to confirm this; "Ye shall find the child lying in a stable," which was a good direction by which to find Jesus. J.'

This interpretation sets aside the commonly received notion of our Saviour's lying in a manger, which, however, is mentioned by most of the fathers. Jerom, who lived some time at Bethlehem, says, the stable was a *cavi*; and he distinguishes it from the φατνη, or *præsepe*. Quâ voce tibi *speluncam* salvatoris exponam? et illud *præsepe*, in quo infantulus vagiit. Epist. xvi. De osculari *præsepe*, in quo dominus parvulus vagiit; orare in *speluncâ*, in quâ virgo puerpera dominum fudit infantem. Ep. xxv. See Justin, Origen, Eusebius, Athanasius, &c.

Ch. iv.

CH. iv. 12. Jesus was led by the Spirit into the wilderness, being forty days tempted of the devil, C. T. Was led by the Spirit into the wilderness forty days; being tempted of the devil, Pr. 'Led into the wilderness forty days,' is a harsh ellipsis. With respect to the nature of this temptation, our author says, 'All that may really be meant by Jesus being tempted by the devil, may be, that the improper thoughts mentioned in the course of the narrative, either occurred to himself, in his private meditations, or were suggested by some other person.'

John ii. 4. *Τι μοι και σοι*, What have I to do with thee? C. T. What hast thou to do with me? Pr. It would perhaps lessen the apparent harshness of this expression, to translate the original, What hast thou to say to me? or, What hast thou to propose to me?

Luke xvii. 8. Till I have eaten and drunken, C. T. Till I have eaten and *drank*, Pr. *Drank* is ungrammatical, the past time instead of the participle.

John xiii. 12. Was *set* down again, C. T. Was *sat* down again, Pr. A solecism, like that in the preceding passage.

The same impropriety occurs, Matth. v. 1. *Καθισαντος αυτου*, when he was *set*, C. T. When he was *sat*, Pr. It ought to be, 'When he was *seated*.' See C. T. Heb. viii. 1. xii. 2. &c.

Our author has left the following solecism unaltered. Cast out the beam out of thine own eye, Matth. vii. 5.

Matth. xvi. 45. *Καθευδετε το λοιπον, και αναπαυσθε*, Sleep on now, and take your rest, C. T. Do ye still sleep, and take your rest? Pr. This translation is certainly more agreeable to the context, and removes an inconsistency, or the necessity of having recourse to an ironical sense.

Mark xiv. 72. *Και επιβαλων, εκλαιε*. And when he thought thereon, he wept. 'And when he had gone out hastily, he wept,' Pr. The word *επιβαλων* is capable of various acceptations. Constantine proves out of Philoponus, Dionysius, and St. Basil, that it signifies *κατανοειν*, to consider, or think upon: so say Phavorinus and Theophylact. See Whitby.

This, together with the propriety of the sentiment, may be sufficient to justify our translators. With regard to the sense which Dr. Priestley has adopted, it is indeed agreeable to the words of St. Matthew, *εξελθον εξω*, 'going out.' But it is a very absurd mode of interpretation, on such occasions, to reduce the expressions of one evangelist to the precise meaning of another. As if they could not have different ideas on the same subject, or express themselves differently in relating the same event. Besides, *επιβαλων*, without any other word in connection with it, can never signify to go out. In a note our

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author observes, that *επιβαλον* may perhaps mean, that he covered his face with his garment. But in this sense the phrase would be uncommonly elliptical.

Matth. xix. 24. It is easier for a camel, C. T. It is easier for a cable, Pr.

There is, if we mistake not, a singular propriety in the image of a camel, applied by our Saviour to a rich man; a camel being the common beast of burthen in Judea, and usually loaden with riches, Isa. ix. 6. But this striking allusion is lost in Dr. Priestley's version. The comparison, when taken from the camel, accounts likewise more naturally for the amazement of the disciples in the next verse. Bochart (*Hierozoicon*, l. ii, c. 5.) in favour of the word *cable*, mentions the testimony of the Syriac and Arabic versions, and some Hebrew proverbs. But his arguments are inconclusive. The date of the Syriac version is very uncertain. There is no proof that it was extant before the Italic of the Latin church; and Jerom's version has *camelum*. The Hebrew proverbs are taken from writers who lived several ages after Christ.

These few examples may serve as a specimen of the alterations, which the author has made in the text. Some of them are perhaps inaccurate; but the greater part are certainly very proper.

The author has illustrated the history of our Saviour by a map of the Holy Land, taken from that which is prefixed to the bishop of Ossory's Harmony.

*Account of the Russian Discoveries between Asia and America, To which are added, the Conquest of Siberia, and the History of the Transactions and Commerce between Russia and China. By William Coxe, A. M. 4to. 18s. boards. Cadell.*

THE first part of this volume contains Preliminary Observations concerning Kamtchatka, and an Account of the New Discoveries made by the Russians. The latter of those articles Mr. Coxe has translated from a treatise written in the German language, and recommended to him by Mr. Muller at Petersburg as a work of fidelity and merit.

The peninsula of Kamtchatka was not discovered by the Russians till towards the end of the last century. This country having suffered much from the ravages of the small-pox in 1768, contains, at present, no more than four thousand inhabitants.

The first project for making discoveries in the sea between Kamtchatka and America, we are told, was conceived and planned

planned by Peter the Great. Since that time, various expeditions have been undertaken for accomplishing the purpose. From the account of the latest navigators, we learn that Beering's Island is situated due east from Kamtchatkoi Nofs, in the 185th degree of longitude. Near it is Copper Island; and at some distance thence, east-south east, are three small islands, named by their inhabitants, Attak, Semitsi, and Shemiya. Those are properly the Aleütian Isles: they stretch from west-north-west towards east-south-east, in the same direction as Beering's and Copper Islands, in the longitude of 195, and latitude 54. To the north-east of those, at the distance of six hundred or eight hundred versts, lies another group of six or more islands, known by the name of the Andreanoffskie Ostrova. South-east of the latter, at the distance of about fifteen degrees, and north by east of the Aleütian, begins the chain of Lyssie Ostrova, or Fox Islands. This chain of rocks and isles stretches east-north-east between 56 and 61 degrees of north latitude, and from 211 degrees of longitude, most probably to the continent of America; and in a line of direction which crosses that in which the Aleütian isles lie. The most remarkable of the Lyssie Ostrova are, Umnak, Aghunashka, Kadyak, and Alagsbak.

In the second chapter of this part, we meet with an account of the voyages performed in 1745; containing the discovery of the Aleütian Isles by Michael Nevodstikoff. The second chapter relates successive voyages, from 1747 to 1753, to Beering's and Copper Island, and to the Aleütian Isles; with some account of the inhabitants. It appears, that upon the three Aleütian Islands, there are, exclusive of children, only sixty males, whom the Russians made tributary. The inhabitants live upon roots which grow wild, and sea animals. They do not employ themselves in catching fish, though the rivers abound with all kinds of salmon, and the sea with turbot. Their cloaths are made of the skins of birds and of sea-otters.

The fourth chapter recites voyages from 1753 to 1756; describing some of the farther Aleütian or Fox Islands, touched at by Serebrankoff's vessel, and giving some account of the natives. All those islands contain about four thousand souls. The dwellings of the inhabitants are provided with no other furniture than benches, and mats of platted grass. Their dress consists of a kind of shirt made of bird-skins, and of an upper garment of intestines stitched together. They wear wooden caps, ornamented with a small piece of board projecting forwards. They are all provided with stone knives, and a few have those instruments made of iron. Their only weapons  
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are arrows with points of bone or flint, which they shoot from a wooden instrument.

Chapter fifth comprehends the voyages from 1756 to 1758; and chapter sixth those from that period to 1760 inclusive. In the latter we are presented with a short account of Alakfu or Alachokak, one of the remotest eastern islands hitherto discovered. This account, however, though found in the depositions of the voyagers, Mr. Coxe informs us is not to be credited in every particular.

The seventh chapter recites the voyage of Andrian Folstyk in the *St. Andrian* and *Natalia*; with the discovery of some new Islands called *Andreanoffkye Ostrova*, and a description of six of those Islands. This is said to be the most remarkable Russian voyage hitherto made; and therefore we shall lay before our readers the account of the islands which the navigators discovered.

' *Ayagh* is about an hundred and fifty versts in circumference: it contains several high and rocky mountains, the intervals of which are bare heath and moor ground: not one forest tree is to be found upon the whole island. The vegetables seem for the most part like those which grow in *Kamtschatka*. Of berries there are found crow or crane-berries and the larger sort of bilberries, but in small quantities. Of the roots of burnet and all kinds of snake-weed, there is such abundance as to afford, in case of necessity, a plentiful provision for the inhabitants. The abovementioned rivulet is the only one upon the island. The number of inhabitants cannot sufficiently be ascertained, because the natives pass continually from island to island in their baidars.

' *Kanaga* stands west from *Ayagh*, and is two hundred versts in circumference. It contains an high volcano where the natives find sulphur in summer. At the foot of this mountain are hot springs, wherein they occasionally boil their provision. There is no rivulet upon this island; and the low grounds are similar to those of *Ayagh*. The inhabitants are reckoned about two hundred souls.

' *Tsetchina* lies eastward about forty versts from *Kanaga*, and is about eighty in circumference. It is full of rocky mountains, of which the *Bielaia Sopka*, or the *White Peak*, is the highest. In the valley there are also some warm springs, but no rivulet abounding in fish: the island contains only four families.

' *Tagalak* is forty versts in circumference, ten east from *Tsetchina*: it contains a few rocks, but neither rivulets with fish, nor any vegetable production fit for nourishment. The coasts are rocky, and dangerous to approach in baidars. This island is also inhabited by no more than four families.

' *Atchu* lies in the same position forty versts distant from *Tagalak*, and is about three hundred in circumference: near it  
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is an harbour, where ships may ride securely at anchor. It contains many rocky mountains; and several small rivulets that fall into the sea, and of which one running eastwards abounds in fish. The roots which have just before been mentioned, and bulbs of white lilies, are found there in plenty. Its inhabitants amount to about sixty souls.

Amlach is a mountainous island standing to the east more than seven versts from Atchu, and is also three hundred in circumference. It contains the same number of inhabitants as Atchu, has a commodious haven, and produces roots in abundance. Of several small rivulets there is one only which flows towards the north, that contains any fish. Besides these a cluster of other islands were observed stretching farther to the east, which were not touched upon.

The inhabitants of these six islands are tributary to Russia. They live in holes dug in the earth, in which they make no fires even in winter. Their clothes are made like shirts, of the skins of the guillinot and puffin, which they catch with springes. Over these in rainy weather they wear an upper garment, made of the bladders and other dried intestines of seals and sea-lions oiled and stitched together. They catch cod and tarbot with bone hooks, and eat them raw. As they never lay in a store of provision, they suffer greatly from hunger in stormy weather, when they cannot go out to fish; at which time they are reduced to live upon small shell-fish and sea-wrack, which they pick up upon the beach and eat raw. In May and June they kill sea-otters in the following manner: when the weather is calm, they row out to sea in several baidars: having found the animal, they strike him with harpoons, and follow him so closely, that he cannot easily escape. They take sea-dogs in the same manner. In the severest weather they make no addition to their usual cloathing. In order to warm themselves in winter, whenever it freezes very hard, they burn a heap of dry grass, over which they stand and catch the heat under their clothes. The clothes of the women and children are made of sea-otter skins, in the same form as those belonging to the men. Whenever they pass the night at a distance from home, they dig a hole in the earth, and lay themselves down in it, covered only with their clothes and mats of platted grass. Regardless of every thing but the present moment, destitute of religion, and without the least appearance of decency, they seem but few degrees removed from brutes.

Chapter eighth relates the voyage of the Zacharias and Elizabeth, fitted out by Kulhoffs, and commanded by Drusinin. They sail to Umnak and Unalashka, and winter on the latter island, where all the crew, except four, are murdered by the natives. The ninth chapter recites the voyage of the vessel called the Trinity, under the command of Korovin, who sails to the Fox Islands, and winters at Unalashka. Putting to sea  
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the spring following, the vessel is stranded in a bay of the island Umnak, and the crew attacked by the natives. Many of them are killed, and others carried off by sickness. The following is the account delivered by Korovin, of Umnak and Unalashka.

The islands Umnak and Unalashka are situated not much more northwards than the mouth of the Kamtehatka river; and, according to the ship's reckoning, about the distance of 1700 versts eastwards from the same place. The circumference of Umnak is about two hundred and fifty versts; Unalashka is much larger. Both these islands are wholly destitute of trees; drift-wood is brought ashore in large quantities. There were five lakes upon the northern coast of Unalashka, and but one upon Umnak, of which none were more than ten versts in circumference. These lakes give rise to several small rivulets, which flow only a few versts before they empty themselves into the sea; the fish enter the rivulets in the middle of April, they ascend the lakes in July, and continue there until August. Sea-otters and other sea-animals resort but seldom to these islands; but there is great abundance of red and black foxes, North eastwards from Unalashka two islands appeared in sight, at the distance of five or ten versts; but Korovin did not touch at them.

The inhabitants of these islands row in their small baidam from one island to the other. They are so numerous, and their manner of life so unsettled, that their number cannot exactly be determined. Their dwelling caves are made in the following manner. They first dig an hole in the earth proportioned to the size of their intended habitation, of twenty, thirty, or forty yards in length, and from six to ten broad. They then set up poles of larch, fir, and ash driven on the coast by the sea. Across the tops of these poles they lay planks, which they cover with grass and earth. They enter through holes in the top by means of ladders. Fifty, an hundred, and even an hundred and fifty persons dwell together in such a cave. They light little or no fires within, for which reason these dwellings are much cleaner than those of the Kamtchadals. When they want to warm themselves in the winter, they make a fire of dry herbs, of which they have collected a large store in summer, and stand over it until they are sufficiently warmed. A few of these islanders wear fur-sockings in winter; but the greater part go bare-footed, and all are without breeches. The skins of cormorants, puffins, and sea-divers, serve for the mens cloathing; and the women wear the skins of sea-bears, seals, and sea-otters. They sleep upon thick mats, which they twist out of a soft kind of grass that grows upon the shore, and have no other covering but their usual clothes. Many of the men have five or six wives; and he that is the best hunter or fisher has the greatest

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number. The women make their needles of the bones of birds wings, and use sinews for thread.

Their weapons are bows and arrows, lances and darts, which they throw like the Greenlanders to the distance of sixty yards by means of a little hand-board. Both the darts and arrows are feathered: the former are about an ell and an half long; the shaft, which is well made considering their want of instruments, is often composed of two pieces that join into each other: the point is of flint, sharpened by beating it between two stones. These darts as well as the lances were formerly tipped with bone, but at present the points are commonly made of the iron which they procure from the Russians, and out of which they ingeniously form little hatchets and two-edged knives. They shape the iron by rubbing it between two stones, and wetting it frequently with sea-water. With these instruments and stone hatchets they build their baidars. They have a strange custom of cutting holes in the under-lip and through the gristle of the nose. They place in the former two little bones, wrought in the form of teeth, which project some inches from the face. In the nose a piece of bone is placed crossways. The deceased are buried with their boat, weapons, and clothes.

The tenth chapter contains the voyage of Stephen Glottoff, who visited the island of Kadyak. Among other wares which the Russians here procured from the inhabitants, were two small carpets, worked in a curious manner, and on one side set close with beaver-wool like velvet; but they could not learn whether those carpets were the manufacture of the natives. The inhabitants differ considerably in dress and language from those of the other Fox Islands; and several species of animals were observed upon Kadyak, which are not to be found upon the other islands, viz. ermines, martens, beavers, river-otters, wolves, wild boars, and bears. Some of the inhabitants had cloaths made of the skins of rein-deer and jevras; the latter of which is a sort of small marmoset. Both those skins, it is supposed by the anonymous author of the *Treatise*, were procured from the continent of America. But Mr. Coxe observes in a note, that though this conjecture is probable, the inhabitants of Kadyak might have been supplied with the skins of the rein-deer from the island of Alaksu. Kadyak likewise yields willows and alders, which are considered as a farther proof that it lies at no great distance from the continent of America.

The eleventh chapter recounts Salovioff's voyage, who sails to Unalashka, where he passes two winters: and chapter twelfth relates the voyage of Otcheredin, who winters upon Umnak.

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The thirteenth chapter, which concludes this part of the volume, delivers a general account of the Aleutian and Fox Islands, their distance from each other, and a farther description of the dress, manners, and customs of the inhabitants.

The second part of the volume contains the Conquest of Siberia, and the History of the Transactions and Commerce between Russia and China. Siberia was hardly known to the Russians before the middle of the sixteenth century. It was at that time partly divided among a number of separate princes; and partly inhabited by the various tribes of independent Tartars. The instrument by which this vast extent of dominion was added to the Russian empire, was a person named Yermac Timoseef, who, from being a fugitive Cossack of the Don, raised himself to the dignity of sovereign of Siberia, which he afterwards voluntarily transferred to the czar or czar of Muscovy.

The author next relates the commencement of hostilities between the Russians and Chinese, with the disputes concerning the limits of the two empires. Those disputes were at length terminated by the treaty of Nerzhinsk, which laid the foundation of an important and regular commerce between the two nations. This treaty was signed on the 27th of August, 1689; and by it the Russians lost, exclusively of a large territory, the navigation of the river Amoor. The importance of this loss, Mr. Coxe observes, was not then understood, and has only been felt since the discovery of Kamtschatka, and of the islands between Asia and America. The products of those new-discovered countries, he remarks, might, by means of the Amoor, have been conveyed by water into the district of Nerzhinsk, whence to Kiachta there is an easy carriage by land; whereas, at present, this merchandize, after being landed at Ochotsk, is carried over a large tract of country, partly upon rivers of difficult navigation, and partly along rugged, and almost impassable roads.

By a subsequent convention, termed the treaty of Kiachta, which was concluded in 1728, additional regulations were made respecting the commerce between Russia and China. In 1762, the present empress abolished the monopoly of the fur-trade, and renounced, in favour of her subjects, the exclusive privilege which the crown enjoyed, of sending caravans to Peking. By those concessions, we are informed, the profits of the trade have been considerably increased; the great expence and delay of transporting the merchandize occasionally from the frontiers of Siberia to Peking, has been retrenched; and Kiachta is now rendered the center of the Russian and Chinese commerce.

In a succeeding chapter, Mr. Coxe gives an account of the Russian and Chinese settlements upon the confines of Siberia; with a description of the Russian frontier town Kiachta, and the Chinese frontier town Maimatschin, its buildings, pagodas, &c. In treating afterwards of the commerce between the Chinese and Russians, the author gives a list of the principal exports and imports, and the duties and average amount of the Russian trade. He next presents us with a description of the town of Zourichaitu, and its trade, with the transport of merchandise through Siberia.

In an appendix to the volume, we meet with various articles relative to the subjects before treated. Numb. I. contains an Extract from the Journal of a Voyage made by Captain Krenitzin and Lieutenant Levasheff to the Fox Islands, in 1768 and 1769, by order of the Empress of Russia. Numb. II. relates to the longitude of Kamtohatka, and of the eastern extremity of Asia, as laid down by the Russian geographers. Numb. III. Summary of the Proofs tending to shew, that Bering and Tchirikoff either reached America in 1741, or came very near it. IV. List of the principal Charts representing the Russian Discoveries. V. Position of the Andreanoffsky Isles ascertained.—Number of the Aleütian Isles. VI. Conjectures concerning the proximity of the Fox Islands to the continent of America. VII. Of the Tchutski—Reports of the vicinity of America to their coast, first propagated by them, seem to be confirmed by late accounts from those parts. VIII. List of the new-discovered Islands, procured from an Aleütian chief. IX. Voyage of Lieutenant Synd to the north-east of Siberia. X. Specimens of the Aleütian language. XI. Attempts of the Russians to discover a north-east passage. The last article in the Appendix treats of Tartarian Rhubarb, brought to Kiachta by the Bucharian merchants.—Method of examining and purchasing the roots.—Different species of rheum which yield the finest rhubarb.—Price of Rhubarb in Russia.—Exportation.—Superiority of the Tartarian over the Indian rhubarb.

It is evident from this work, that Mr. Coxe has taken great pains to ascertain the faithfulness of the authorities which are produced in support of the narrative; and we cannot question either his own fidelity or accuracy in the translation of the German treatise relative to the Russian voyages. The several parts of the volume contain the fullest information on their respective subjects; which, if they be not all interesting to every English reader, are, however, worthy the attention of those who are desirous of cultivating general knowledge.

*Antiquities*



*Antiquities and Scenery of the North of Scotland, in a Series of Letters, to Thomas Pennant, Esq. By the rev. Charles Cordiner, Ato. 12s. 6d. Boards. T. Payne.*

THE first of these letters is dated from Bamff, May 15th, 1776. From it we learn that the author, Mr. Cordiner, who appears to be a good draughtsman, had communicated some drawings he had made of antiquities in the north of Scotland to Mr. Pennant. This ingenious traveller expressing a desire that Mr. Cordiner would accomplish a general delineation of those antiquities, the latter cheerfully undertook the task; and has written these letters, accompanied with drawings, as a supplement to Mr. Pennant's Tour in Scotland.

The second letter is also dated from Bamff, and contains an account of Duff-House and its environs. This place, which is the seat of the earl of Fife, appears to be a magnificent building.

Letter the third, contains a description of the country along the banks of the Devron. This river, we are informed, runs through fields in a high state of cultivation; and the prospect all the way is enriched with seats amidst extensive plantings. In the valley of Strath-bogie, near the village of Huntley, stand the ruins of a castle of the same name. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large square towers, which had defended the gateway. Great part of the castle seems to be very old, and is nearly demolished; but there is a massy building of more modern date, in which some of the apartments, and in particular their curious cielings, are still preserved pretty entire. They are painted with a great variety of subjects, in small divisions, with a few lines of poetry, descriptive of the design, under each piece.

The strath is bounded on the opposite side by the Hill of Noth, which the author mentions as a most majestic mountain. He informs us, that it bears the strongest resemblance to every description of a volcanic mount; and at the distance of many miles, one can distinguish those ridges which are the boundaries of the crater.

The traces of ancient volcanos (says the author) are far from being unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finhaven is one instance; and not only abundant in this species of lava, but with tarras, or the pulvis puteolanus, an amalgama, as Condamine calls it, of calcined stones mixed with scorias and iron-rust reduced to powder. The hill of Beregonium, near Dunstaffage castle, is another, yielding vast quantities of pumices or scoria of different kinds; many of which are of the same species with those of the

volcanic Iceland. The noble assemblage of basaltic columns at Staffa, those in the Isle of Skie, and the rock Humba, are but so many evidences of the ancient volcanos of this country. And finally, the immense stratum of pumex vitreus, or Iceland agate, on the hill of Duo-fuin in Arran, is the last proof I shall bring in support of the question.

The castle of Kildrummy, we are told, is built in a majestic style, equally expressive of magnificence and security. Its strength seems superior to what could have been thought necessary before the use of cannon; and its grandeur corresponds with the idea of its having been intended for a royal palace. It stands on an eminence projecting into a deep glen, and is built in the form of a pentagon. It is defended at the angles by very strong and lofty towers, one of which, called the Snow Tower, is still near fifty yards in height. This castle was frequently an asylum to eminent persons who had fled thither in times of public commotion.

The fourth letter affords a description of the mountainous region of Brae-Mar. Here stands the ancient castle of Duna-deer, which, from its situation on the top of a high circular hill, is observable at a great distance.

The author afterwards describes the Bullers of Buchan, those celebrated natural excavations of the rock, on the coast of the German ocean.

A few miles from Peterhead, stands Inverugie castle, the ancient seat of the earl marshals of Scotland. In treating of this castle the author favours his readers with the following copy of a letter written by the king of Prussia to the late lord marshal, when his lordship was in Scotland.

“ I cannot allow the Scotch the happiness of possessing you altogether. Had I a fleet, I would make a descent on their coasts, and carry you off. The banks of the Elbe do not admit of these equipments; I must therefore have recourse to your friendship, to bring you to him who esteems and loves you. I loved your brother with my heart and soul: I was indebted to him for great obligations: this is my right to you, this my title.

“ I spend my time as formerly; only at night I read Virgil's *Georgics*, and go to my garden in the morning, to make my gardener reduce them to practice; he laughs both at Virgil and me, and thinks us both fools.

“ Come to ease, to friendship, and philosophy; these are what, after the bustle of life, we must all have recourse to.”

The eighth letter is dated from Troup-head, a vast promontory, where the author is charmed with the prospect of an extensive sweep of bold shores on either hand. In many parts the precipices, which overhang the ocean, are a hundred yards high.

high. Sometimes the cliffs, disjointed from the main, assume the appearance of stately ruins, and massy towers rising out of the deep. Sometimes they form into vast rugged amphitheatres, affording a scenery extremely picturesque.

We are afterwards presented with an account of Cullen-House, the seat of the earl of Findlater; which stands in a romantic situation, on the verge of a rocky precipice. On a circular mound opposite, are vestiges of a fort, supposed to be Danish, which had guarded the landing-place at that corner of the bay.

In the tenth letter, we find an accurate description of Forres pillar, which seems to have been particularly recommended to the author's attention by Mr. Pennant, and likewise a general account of Gordon castle.

After describing a great variety of places along the coast, and in the more interior parts of the country, Mr. Cordiner informs us, that Dilred Castle, which stands about twelve or fifteen miles from the sea, has a most remarkable situation. It is built upon the top of a steep circular rock rising almost perpendicularly out of the banks of the Thurso, and overhanging its craggy channel. There is on no side access to it but by climbing. Some steps seem to have been made up one side of the rock; but they are too ill executed to yield any thing but a dangerous path. Opposite to it are several exceedingly picturesque and rugged cliffs, which bound the course of the river to a considerable distance on either hand.

We shall lay before our readers the author's account of the remains of Dun-Dornadilla.

• This venerable ruin dignifies the banks of a pleasant river, which divides the dale. The verdure of the valley, not without rising corn, became a chearful scene in so dreary a wilderness; a solitary hamlet near the best-cultivated spot, mingled a rural softness with the vast wildness of the rest of the prospect. Projecting rocks, shagged with bushes, and frowning with vast length of shadows along the sides of the hills of immeasurable extent, many cascades in deep-worn channels, rushing down among them, murmur their wild music to the winds and the echoing rocks; for now no plaintive bard sits listening "by the tree of the rustling leaf." Picturesque and lofty mountains terminate the view; the head of one immensely high in air, bending over its precipitous sides, seems nodding to its fall; and threatens the dale with its ruins. On every hand the scenery is such, as gives Dun-Dornadilla a situation distinguishedly romantic, magnificently wild.

• From the anonymous account of the building, which is quoted in the Voyage to the Hebrides, I expected greater singularity in its structure; but it uniformly corresponds with

what remains of the other circular towers, which have been the castles of the chieftains in early ages. It bears a most remarkable resemblance to those in Glenelg, of which you have given such accurate views, and so fully described in all its parts, as to render any further account almost unnecessary. I should not have said so much, if it was not to vindicate you from a most groundless charge in a late publication. The perusal of your description will be sufficient evidence of my assertion.

I cannot see the smallest reason for supposing that such edifices have been places of worship. They are with the utmost ingenuity contrived to prove secure and convenient dwellings. The inner wall of each seems uniformly perpendicular, so that in these towers there remain no vestiges of their having closed at the top, after the manner of the recesses in the camps. But it is probable they may have had partial coverings of wood; the circle of stones, which project in some of them, at an equal height, all round the inside of the building, may have been for resting the ends of the beams upon. It is not an invincible argument against it, that the builders do not seem to have had hammers, or known the use of iron; for we find, that not only beams and planks can be cut, but compactly and firmly joined; and even rich carvings executed, without the aid of instruments of metal: of this the late voyages in the South Seas yield the most striking evidence. But whatever floorings they may have had within the castles, they must not have extended over all the area of the building; for that would have rendered the halls dark and cheerless; and as the apartments in the walls and passages are at present, with evident design, lighted by windows from within; that would have been a superfluous care, if they had above entirely excluded the day. Some of the square openings, indeed, in the inner wall, as is justly observed by the anonymous writer, do not communicate either with the chambers or passages, but are a kind of beaufets; but sure no one need perplex himself in consulting what they were intended to hold; for such are common in all old buildings; and here perhaps have been enriched with drinking-shells and other ornamental utensils, no less esteemed in their day, than now the finest porcelain or vases of gold.

The argument against Dun-Dornadilla's having been a fortress, because it is commanded by a neighbouring hill, is not valid. Arrows from the adjacent eminence could have no effect; and it is not so high, as that large stones could be thrown into the building, and none but those of enormous size could possibly make any impression. It appears to me placed in one of the best situations which the extensive dale affords. 'Tis on a rising ground, sufficiently distant from the river not to be overflowed; and covered on the north by the hill, yet not so near as to suffer from an enemy on it.

This is by far the most entire circular tower that I have seen; and probably the most compleat of the kind now extant:

is remotely situated from the dwellings of men, it seems only to have suffered from the hand of time. I observed several nearer the coast, in Strathnaver, but they were completely ruined, having afforded materials for other adjacent buildings. This is said to be but seven miles from the north shore, but it is a long half-day's journey from the head of the firth of Tongue: the dale, a few miles down, opens into Loch-eribol, a very noble, safe, and extensive harbour; perhaps yielding in excellence only to Cromarty-bay, of any road in Scotland.

The highest parts of the walls of Dun-Dornadilla, are not thirty feet, but must have been much more; for the door, which like that of the one in Sutherland, has been at least six feet high, is at present one half of its height choaked up with rubbish fallen from the top. The building is near fifty yards in circumference. The inner area twenty-seven feet diameter. There are three distinct rows of apartments, and passages, within the wall: I walked up and down different stairs from the first to the second story, but those to the third seemed too confined, probably owing to many of the stones being displaced or fallen in.

This place takes its name from a monarch, on whom our early historians have bestowed that of Dornadilla. He was, say they, a great hunter; first established laws of the chase; reigned twenty-eight years in peace and plenty, and died only two hundred and thirty-three years before Christ.

On the south banks of the firth of Dornock, stands an old tower, known by the name of Dun-alisfaig. Mr. Cordiner informs us, that it has been a very sumptuous edifice of the kind. The wall is twelve foot thick. There are in it four chambers on the ground floor, with narrow passages of communication. About nine foot from the ground there projects a circle of stones, broad enough to allow of walking round the inside of the building. One step up from those, four doors open to the apartments of the second story, which have also a communication, by means of narrow stair-cases, with some of the chambers below. The area of the court or hall within, is twenty-seven foot diameter. No part of the wall in this castle is now above sixteen foot high. There is a tradition among the neighbouring inhabitants, that it was the tower of Fingal.

Mr. Cordiner, besides describing in a lively manner the various objects of his research, has enriched the volume with the addition of many extracts, translated from the Norwegian writer Torfæus, relative to the ancient history of the northern parts of Scotland. The materials upon which Torfæus has founded his work, being many of them derived from the tradition of no less than seven centuries, are, doubtless, not to be considered as of indisputable authority. So far, however, as they

they are supported by the Codex Floteiences, they are entitled to greater credit ; and by this channel Mr. Cordiner has thrown light upon many remote transactions in the north of Scotland, which have hitherto not drawn the attention of British historians.

This volume is an excellent supplement to Mr. Pennant's Tour ; and is rendered particularly valuable by the great number of beautiful engravings which it contains.

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*Practical Husbandry ; or, the Art of Farming, with a Certainty of Gain : as practised by judicious Farmers in this Country. The Result of Experience and long Observation. By Dr. John Trusler. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Baldwin.*

**I**N the days of Cromwell, when agriculture languished under the wounds of the civil war, it was the duty of every member of the commonwealth to draw the attention of the nobility and gentry to the practice of husbandry. Books on agriculture, though filled with false calculations of improbable gain, were then commendable ; for the revival of the state depended in a great measure on the revival of husbandry ; and Hartlib merited the reward granted him by the protector, and Weston the applause he received from the public. But, at the present juncture, when the false lights which have recently been displayed by visionary writers on this most serious subject, have involved a class of men, the most valuable which this or any other country possesses (we mean the common farmers), in almost universal ruin, we little expected to have seen another visionary production. It is indeed with sincere regret, and some degree of indignation, we find a reverend doctor, or at least member, of the church, dealing out such calculations, as evidently tend to sink the industrious husbandman still lower with oppression.

Had not our author introduced his subject so gravely, and we will add so sensibly, as he has done, we should have concluded that he meant to play the satirist, and by overloading his estimates, to have rendered all similar calculations ridiculous ; and we really wish, for the sake of his readers, that his work may be considered in this point of view. But as the wit (if intended as such), is too refined for common understandings, we think it our duty to expose the foundation of our author's conclusions.

We neither have room nor patience to point out in detail the multiplicity of inaccuracies in the publication before us ; we therefore proceed at once to the recapitulation, or general conclusion.

• Let

Let us now recapitulate the profits on the different crops I have mentioned, and it will ſhew the fair advantage a gentleman may expect to reap from a farm of one hundred and fifty acres of arable land, under good management. As we ſhall take a view of ſeven ſucceſſive years, in the courſe of which a round of crops takes place, it is immaterial whether we ſuppoſe the whole farm cropped the ſame year with the ſame kind of corn, or with different ſorts: the produce at the ſeven years end will be the ſame.

We will begin with ſtiff land, on which the courſe of crops will be, after a fallow, 1 Tares. 2 Wheat. 3 Oats and clover. 4. Clover. 5. Clover. 6. Beans. 7. Turneps.

	L.	s.	d.	L.	s.	d.
1. The profit of 150 acres of Tares, cut for hay,	at 1	9	6	is	221	5 0
2. Ditto, of 150 acres of Wheat,	at 2	10	0	—	375	0 0
3. Ditto, ditto Oats,	at 1	19	10	—	298	15 0
4. Ditto, Clover cut for hay,	at 5	5	0	—	787	10 0
5. Ditto, Clover fed,	at 5	5	0	—	787	10 0
6. Ditto, Beans, at 1	13	0	—	247	10 0	
					2717	10 0

7. Loſs on 150 acres of turneps, fed off by ſheep, at 18 s.					135	0 0
				Profit	2582	10 0

The waſte corn at the barn-door will yield in poultry 10 l. a year; which, in ſeven years, will give a profit of					70	0 0
				Total profit	2652	10 0

Divide then 2652 l. 10 s. by ſeven years, and it will appear, that a farm of 150 acres will yield an annual profit of 379 l. but, if the land be naturally poor, and it be neceſſary to make the ſeventh year a fallow; inſtead of 13½ l. loſs on the turneps, we muſt reckon the loſs of rent and team, which will be 300 l. this will make a difference of loſs to the amount of 165 l. and reduce the 2652 l. 10 s. to 2487 l. 10 s. which divided by 7, leaves the annual profit only 355 l. 7 s.

Thus (if our author is ſerious) a gentleman who farms 150 acres, at 'fourteen or fifteen ſhillings per acre,' that is about 100 l. a year, may expect a certain gain of 355 l. 7 s. per annum!

To ſay that this concluſion is ſelf-evidently improbable and abſurd, would be a waſte of words; we will therefore (to ſave our readers the trouble) point out its principal errors, and ſhew that it is drawn from a moſt unfair calculation.

Fiſt then, we will venture to ſay, that it is impoſſible with one team of four horſes, to cultivate properly 150 acres of arable ſtiff land. Eighty acres of ſtiff land, in tillage, managed

managed in the manner set forth by our author, 'with a coiff-post dunghill at every gate,' are sufficient employment for four horses, a man, and a boy, (especially if the plowman 'buy and sell, and do all the business of the farm!') and we will venture to assert, from a thorough knowledge of the subject, and we appeal to every sensible farmer in the kingdom for the truth of our assertions, that an addition of at least 100 l. *per annum* is indispensably necessary to be made to Dr. Trusler's general calculation of labour, wear of implements, fences, &c.

Again, we pronounce it impossible to produce good crops successively without manure; and yet (we suppose through an oversight) our author has not taken this necessary article into his estimate; for the wheat-straw, oat-straw, and clover-hay, are calculated as sold, and carried off the farm: there is consequently nothing but the bean haulm and the clover, consumed by the four horses, to create manure for 150 acres of arable land. Now such land as Dr. Trusler describes, producing such crops as he takes into his calculation, will require a good coat of dung every four years at least. The doctor values dung at 5 s. per load, and reckons ten loads per acre a middling dressing; so that, on his own calculation, we cannot call the dung, during the seven years, at less than 4 l. per acre, or 600 l. on the 150 acres, or about 85 l. *per annum*. But the dung of the horses, &c. we will lay at 30 l. and set down an error in regard to manure, of 55 l.

Thus the 355 l. (our author's ideal profit) is, on the general principle of his calculation, reduced, and we trust very fairly, to 200 l. We will now descend to the particular articles of his curious estimate.

The tares, wheat, and oats, we will pass over; though the first and the last are obviously over-rated. But what shall we say to a clear profit of five guineas per acre on clover, for two years successively! The doctor makes a variety of calculations on this crop. The profit on feeding it off by cattle on the land, he makes 3 l. 1 s. 4 d. per acre. On mowing it for hay, 35 s. per acre. On cutting it green, and carrying it into the stable, 8 l. 17 s. 2 d. per acre. On feeding it off with sows and pigs, 11 l. 9 s. 6 d. per acre. On folding it off with hogs, heifers, and horses, 4 l. 16 s. 10 d. per acre; and then tells us that he takes the five guineas as the medium value! In the title page of this performance we are told, that it contains 'the art of farming, as practised by judicious farmers in this country.' And in an introductory chapter our author says, 'The fact, in short, is this; such books (alluding to books crowded with theory, new experiments, and speculations) have induced gentlemen to try new methods, and follow them in all  
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the ſound of idle ſpeculation, when they ſhould have purſued that plain method which every farmer follows? And does every farmer about Cobham in Surry cut, every year, a ſeventh part of his farm for ſoiling, and carry it into his ſtable without any expence? or ſeed off a ſeventh part of his farm with ſows and pigs! and that, too, without loſs and without attendance! Away with ſuch 'idle ſpeculations.'

If we allow our author his two firſt calculations on clover, we ſhall do him ample juſtice: we will, however, take into the account (free of all charges) the two and half acres, which, in reckoning the expence of his team, he allows for his cart-horſes; and then the calculation on clover will ſtand thus:

	L.	s.	d.
2½ Acres, cut green for the cart-horſes, at 5 l.	12	10	0
147½ — fed off with cattle, at 3 l. 1 s. 4 d.	452	6	8
150 Acres			
2½ — for the horſes, as before,	12	10	0
147½ — mowed, for hay, at 35 s.	258	2	6
150 Acres	735	9	2

By our author's eſtimate, the profit on clover is 1575 l. by the above, only 735 l. 9 s. 2 d. The difference is therefore 839 l. 10 s. 10 d. which being divided by ſeven years, gives a difference in profit by clover, of 119 l. 18 s. 8 d. which ſum being deducted from the above mentioned reduced ſum of 200 l. leaves an annual profit of no more than 80 l. 1 s. 4 d. even at the full prices on which the doctor founds his calculations, and without reckoning any thing for failure of crops, damage by the weather, loſſes by cattle and cart-horſes, careleſſneſs and pillaging of ſervants, damage by treſpaſſes, market expences, intereſt of money, &c. &c.

Let us now try Dr. Truſler's 'Art of farming with a certainty of gain,' at the preſent prices of produce, and the preſent advanced rents of land.

Our author calculates wheat at 10 l. per load; oats at 20 s. per quarter; beans at 32 s. per quarter; rent, tythe, and taxes, at 20 s. per acre. The preſent medium price of wheat is 8 l. of oats, 16 s. of beans, 28 s. and the rent of ſuch land as that of the doctor's imaginary farm, at leaſt 20 s. per acre, with taxes proportionable. We will however ſay, rent, tythe, and taxes, only 25 s. per acre.

The difference made by theſe prices is thus aſcertained:

	L.	s.	d.
150 Acres Wheat, yielding ½ load per acre, at 21. per load,	150	0	0
150 Oats, 4 quarters 4s. per quar.	120	0	0
150 Beans, 3½ quarters, 4s.	205	0	0
150 Acres of land, at 5s. per acre, for 7 years,	525	10	0
	637	10	0
	Which		

Which sum of 637 l. 10s. being divided by seven years, gives a difference between our author's prices and the present prices, of 91 l. 1s. 5d. per annum.

Hence, a farmer who uses 150 acres of stiff arable land, at the present rate of rent, and prices of produce, and farms by Dr. Trusler's book, must be a certain loser of 11 l. 1d. per annum; besides the heavy drawbacks above enumerated; and without being allowed one penny (except what he earns by his own hand-labour) for the support of himself, his wife, and his children.

[ *From a Correspondent.* ]

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*The New Art of Land Measuring; or, a Turnpike Road to Practical Surveying; leading to a new and exact Method of Measuring and Mapping of Lands, Woods, Waters, &c. by the Catoptric Sextant, and to cast up the same by the Pen only. Also, to many new Discoveries in Laying Out, Dividing, and Reducing of Land. To Levelling for the Conveyance of Water, either in Pipes or open Canals: together with an Appendix, containing a New Theory of the Catoptric Sextant, and its farther Use, in an entire new Method of taking Heights and Distances, independent of Trigonometry: also, Measuring of Standing Timber. To which are added, several new and useful Tables. The Whole illustrated with Copper-plates. By B. Talbot. 8vo. 6s. Lowndes.*

THIS very ample title exhibits the contents of the book, and perhaps more; for several of the things which are here called *new discoveries*, &c. we think we have seen elsewhere. The subject of land-surveying, as well as some others of a similar kind, being generally considered as beneath the attention of learned men, it usually falls into the hands of those who are but ill qualified to write a systematical treatise. This defect leaves room for continual additions, arising from different instruments and different modes of practice; and this, joined to the strong cacoethes scribendi which impels those to publish who are least fit for it, gives occasion to numberless useless books being obtruded on the public. And, what renders the evil still worse, those authors are not content with publishing their own *new methods*, or what they think or pretend to be new, but along with them, which perhaps might be contained in five or six pages, we are often loaded with a treatise of as many hundreds, containing all the other usual and common parts of the art. Mr. Talbot apologizes for adding to the great number of books already extant on land-surveying, by observing that, having for many years practised surveying with various instruments, such as the plain-table, theodolite, &c. and found

found in them many defects and inaccuracies, he at length fell upon a new method, as he thought, and therefore writes a treatise on the whole art, not forgetting the ordinary preparations of geometrical definitions, problems, &c. Perhaps we should not say the *whole art*, as he has omitted what are called county and coast surveying; because he says he can assure his readers, that the many improvements he has made, and that are absolutely necessary for making a complete county map, would have swelled the volume too much. And yet Mr. Talbot has printed his book with large types and small open pages, so as to make it of full three times the size it very well might be printed in!

Having assigned the reasons for writing, Mr. Talbot describes what he calls *his* instrument and method; the one being no other than a Hadley's sector, and the latter consists in casting up the contents of all the triangles by means of two sides and the sines of the included angles.

The work contains 16 sections, and an appendix of 5 sections more. Sect I. and II. the ordinary definitions and problems; we mean definitions and problems relating to the most ordinary figures, for some of the definitions themselves are rather extraordinary: thus, 'A point is the beginning of magnitude, and the bound of a line, and may be conceived to be infinitely small:' now we cannot comprehend how any conception can be formed of a thing infinitely small; neither is it clear whether our author understands by his point, a thing of some magnitude or not; but from some things which follow, it seems he does, and in that case he describes, not a mathematical but a physical point, which has no place in geometry; for he says, 'most authors, and especially Euclid, define a point to have no parts; or that it cannot be divided, no not even in thought. Yet a line is produced by the motion of a point, and is said to have length, but neither breadth nor thickness. But how can that which has no parts produce magnitude or length? or how can nothing produce something?' Thus exalts Mr. Talbot over honest old Euclid, not considering that the father of geometry never considered his points as describing lines; so that they must be different from those of our author. Again, 'an angle is the inclination or meeting of two lines:' so that Mr. Talbot considers the inclination and the meeting as synonymous; but we will venture to say that lines may incline to each other without meeting, as well as meet without inclining or forming any angle, as when they lie in the same direction. Mr. Talbot also defines all the species of parallelograms from the *equality* instead of the *parallelism* of their opposite sides, which is wrong and ungeometrical:

metrical; also, in defining a polygon, he says, 'if the sides are all equal it is called a regular polygon;' but we have always read that both sides and angles must be equal to constitute a regular polygon, and all the sides may be equal when the angles are not. Perhaps it is hardly worth while to notice these and other such like inaccuracies, as nothing depends upon them, our author having given no demonstrations, and seems to have inserted these definitions only for form's sake, or for reasons before hinted; but we think that a teacher of mathematics ought to be more accurate, and not to censure the greatest masters for what are only his own mere misconceptions.

Sect. III. IV. V. describe the instruments used in surveying and plotting. Sect. VI. VII. VIII. IX. X. treat of their use and of the computation of the contents, exemplified with particular cases. And Sect. XI. XII. treat of the laying out and division of land; and in this last part our author appears to have made some gross mistakes indeed, which ought to be detected, as they affect constant practice. He introduces this part thus, 'No author I have yet seen has given a true and rational method of dividing land; especially large commons containing land of different value. And I am sorry to say, I cannot help thinking that very few, if any, hitherto divided, are done truly as they ought to be.' From these assertions one would suppose that Mr. Talbot had been well acquainted with the methods used in such divisions; but, in a remark at the end of the book, he acknowledges that he was quite ignorant of them! He then lays down the only rule which had heretofore been taught in any author, namely to divide the land or its value among the several proprietors, in proportion to their real claims or value of their estates, after the manner of the rule of fellowship in arithmetic; but as this division of the land supposes it to be all of equal quality, the rule proceeds that if the part in which any one's share is to be laid out, is better or worse than the general mean quality of the land, then the quantity of his share must be diminished or augmented in the same proportion. Than this rule, we think nothing can be more plain; yet Mr. Talbot, by a strange mistake in finding the general mean quality or mean value of the land, has roundly condemned it. He takes, for an example, 300 acres to divide among A, B, C, D, whose estates are proportional to the numbers 1, 3, 6, 10, and by the above rule finds their shares must respectively be 15, 45, 90, 150 acres, when the land is all of one quality. He next supposes the respective qualities of the shares to be expressed by the numbers 5, 8, 12, 15, and from what he calls the mean among these,

these, he finds that the said rule will not bring out the shares so as to make up the whole when added together. Now this is intirely owing to his method of taking the mean, which is this: the sum of the above numbers 5, 8, 12, 15, which is 40, divided by 4, their number, quotes 10 for the mean value. But this can only be true when the parcels are in equal quantities; for when they are unequal, then the mean value must be found by the rule which arithmeticians call aligation, namely by multiplying each quantity by the number which expresses its quality, and dividing the sum of the products by the sum of the quantities, the quotient is the mean quality or value; and this mean will come out  $11\frac{10}{109}$  or 11.48325 instead of 10, by using the true shares found in our author's second problem, which is the same as the above rule in other words; and then as each of the values 5, 8, 12, 15, is in proportion to  $11\frac{10}{109}$  this mean value, so is each of the shares 15, 45, 90, 150, as determined on the supposition of an equal uniform quality, to the same true shares.

The remaining sections XIII. XIV. XV. XVI. contain the methods of measuring marl pits, levelling for the conveyance of water, and of drawing and copying plans.

Of the Appendix, the first three sections contain the description and theory of the sextant, with its uses in measuring heights and distances. The IVth section shews how to compute the contents of land by the sliding-rule, and the Vth or last treats of the measurement of roads.

Notwithstanding the blemishes above pointed out, we are glad to perceive several ingenious and useful things in this work. And although our author's methods of surveying with the Hadley's sector, and casting up the contents of triangles by their sides and included angles, is not new, nor proper to be used on all occasions invariably, they seem to be very useful in many cases of surveying.

*Medical Tracts by the late John Wall, M. D. of Worcester. Collected and republished by Martin Wall, M. D. 8vo, boards. 5s. Boards. Cadell.*

**D**R. Wall, the author of these Tracts, was a man of distinguished reputation. He was not only eminent for his medical knowledge, and the assiduity with which he cultivated that art, but also possessed an extraordinary genius for painting. As he inherited this talent from nature, so he improved it without any other aid, and frequently produced, at his leisure hours, such pieces as excited the admiration of all who beheld them.

VOL. XLIX. June, 1780.

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These tracts were published originally in the author's lifetime, some of them in periodical works, and others in the Philosophical and Medical Transactions. They are now collected into one volume by his son, who, in performing such a task, evinces his own filial piety, at the same time that he merits the approbation of all who are solicitous for the advancement of medical science.

The first article contains an account of the extraordinary effects of musk in convulsive disorders, &c. The author's observations on this medicine are so satisfactory and decisive, that they certainly ought to vindicate it from the charge of inutility, which it seems lately to have incurred from the too indiscriminate censure of some writers.

Art. II. treats of the use of the Peruvian bark in the small-pox.

Art. III. of the cure of the putrid sore throat.

Art. IV. contains the case of a boy who was troubled with worms. This paper is copied from the Philosophical Transactions, as it gave occasion to Dr. Wall's Essay concerning the use of oil in the cure of worms, which forms the next article inserted in the volume now before us. The use of oil in this complaint has been attended with great success. Dr. Wall advises that the remedy should be used in as large doses as the stomach will bear. For which purpose he recommends the joining it either with aromatics, bitters, or essential oils, as the case may require. Andry orders the oil to be taken fasting, because the stomach being then most empty, the medicine more readily embraces and stifles the worms. During the course, it will be necessary, at proper intervals, to give rhubarb, mercurial, or aloetic medicines.

The succeeding article is, Experiments and Observations on the Malvern Waters. This is the only treatise in the collection which was ever published in a separate pamphlet. It consists of three parts, which made their appearance at different times. The tract is now become so exceeding scarce, that the republication of it cannot fail of being acceptable to medical readers; and to render it as perfect as possible, the editor has been at no small pains in prosecuting the examination of those waters, for the purpose of obtaining the fullest evidence of their contents. This enquiry discovers great accuracy of experiment, as well as an extensive knowledge of the principles of chemistry.

Art. VII. contains Letters to Sir George Baker, &c. on the Poison of Lead, and the Impregnation of Cyder with that metal.

Art. VIII. is a Letter to Dr. Heberden on the Angina Pectoris, published in a pamphlet with a few other tracts, in 1775, when the college of physicians discontinued the publication of the Medical Transactions.

The last article in the volume is a valuable Supplement, containing an Account of the Epidemic Fever of 1740, 1741, and 1742.

Having laid before our readers a general account of the present volume, we insert for their perusal the following short extract on the effects of musk, which being the result of much careful observation, is particularly worthy of their notice.

Those who are acquainted with the learned Hoffmann's writings, well know of what extensive use antispasmodics are; and the instances here given are, as I imagine, sufficient to prove, that musk is a medicine of uncommon efficacy in convulsive disorders. I can boldly affirm, that when given in its due dose, it has scarce ever once failed my expectations. I have been indeed sometimes obliged to repeat the dose three or four times; but it has always answered at last, in all cases where I had reason to expect it should. It is not to be imagined, that where the spasm proceed from any stimulus fixed in a certain part, this or any other medicine can absolutely cure the convulsion, if the cause be not removed; yet I think it appears, from some of the foregoing histories, that, even without that, it may greatly alleviate them, and gain time for other remedies.

Under the quantity of six grains, I never found much effect from it; but it succeeds best, when given to ten and upwards. In the larger quantities it never fails to produce a mild diaphoresis, without at all heating, or giving any uneasiness to the patient (how much soever it has been decried by some writers on these accounts). On the contrary, it raises his spirits, and eases his pains. After the sweat breaks out, he commonly falls into a refreshing sleep. Some persons I have given it to have observed that their sweat is affected with the scent of musk—a convincing proof of the great subtilty of its parts, and how perfectly it pervades the whole body!—When it is taken in the quantity and manner mentioned by Dr. James, the sweat it procures is very copious, and seldom goes off under 30 or 40 hours; yet though it continues so long, it gives not much fatigue to the patient, on account of the easy sleep it procures, and the spirits it gives at the same time. In these respects the operation of musk much resembles that of opium; but it is in this much preferable, that it leaves not behind it any stupor or languor, which the latter does; so that it seems rather to approach to what is said of the oleum animale. Musk seems therefore likely to answer in those low cases, where sleep is wanted and opiates are improper. I always choose to give it in a bolus, if that form be not disagreeable to the patient; because in that way the perfume is not near so strong as in any other; indeed, when given in a large quantity,

tity, it is rather scetid than fragrant; and I never yet met with any hysterical person, how averse soever to perfumes, but could take it in that form without any inconvenience.

I cannot deny, that I have once or twice prescribed musk, and not found the usual success after repeated doses; but this upon a more exact scrutiny I found was owing only to some sophistication of the musk, which had been used: for after having tried three or four doses from one shop without success, upon sending for the same quantity as had been before ordered, from another person, whose musk I had before experimented, I found the very first dose answer as usual. Indeed it is much to be lamented, that a medicine of this consequence should be so liable to adulteration, and the criteria of its genuineness so ill settled. It is therefore to be wished that some gentleman, who has skill and leisure enough, would oblige the world with an accurate analysis of it, and settle the characteristics of its genuineness, discovering at the same time the frauds and artifices by which it is adulterated and counterfeited, and a certain method of detecting them; for where the musk is not genuine, all that is hitherto said will prove but of little service either to the patient or physician.

These useful practical tracts are illustrated with notes, many of which are taken from the manuscripts of the author; and such as are added by Dr. Martin Wall, the editor, are distinguished by the initials of his own name.

*Poems: With Notes.* By John Walters, Scholar of Jesus College, and Sub-librarian in the Bodleian Library. 8vo. 5s. Kearsly.

THE ingenious author of this volume, which he inscribes to the principal, fellows, and students of Jesus College, Oxford, presents his readers with the following performances, viz. The Preface, containing some remarks on the nature of the historical and learned poem. The Bodleian Library, a poem, consisting of near twelve hundred lines, with a large quantity of notes. An Epistle to Mr. Talbot, on his Travels in France, Switzerland, and Italy. The Death of Lord Chatham. The Vision of Slander and Innocence. An Ode to Religion. To Miss T\*\*\*, on her Shell-work. Song to the Birds. Life, an Elegy. The Progress of Religion, in Latin verse; addressed to the Bishop of Landaff. Botany, a Latin Poem; with biographical Annotations. To these Mr. Walters has added Landough, a loco-descriptive poem, written by his brother; with Notes illustrating the topography of the piece. The last article of the work is an Appendix to the Notes on the Bodleian Library.

In the first poem, which is written on a novel, yet copious subject, history is blended with description. The following passages



passages claim our particular notice; viz. the Speech of Sir Thomas Bodley on opening the Library; and the bold and beautiful personifications which follow, of Religion, Justice, Language, Poetry, Physic, Antiquity, History, and Mathesis. The Medallist Treasures of the Library. The Character and Praises of Tamerlane, with reference to his Institutes. The Oriental Manuscripts. The Preservation of Antiquities by Dodsworth. The Conduct of Cromwell towards the Library after the siege of Oxford. The Picture-gallery, and its Ornaments. The Greek Manuscripts. The Naval Chair, a remnant of the ship in which Sir Francis Drake sailed round the world. The Progress of Astronomy, and its Establishment at Oxford. The Five Orders of Architecture, &c. The following lines may serve as a testimony of our author's poetical merit:

‘Lo, these the shades where Jones *did* first descry  
 All Asia's quire, the maids of melody:  
 By them the bard in visions led along  
 First tun'd in British vales the Persian song;  
 Till borne on high he hastes to Delhi's grove,  
 And shades resounding with the voice of love.  
 Or rests in Aden's bowers his weary wing,  
 Or Schiraz blooming in perennial spring,  
 Where melting Hafiz lov'd his lute to play,  
 And beauty's ear hath listen'd to the lay.’

We wish, however, that the word *did* in the first line could have been avoided.

The apostrophe to Mr. Warton, and the recapitulating character of Sir Thomas Bodley, which concludes the poem, have great merit. Of other pieces in this collection, we shall only observe, that the Song to the Birds, which is distinguished by a new and pleasing vein of poetry, appears not to have received the author's last hand; and that he has complimented a young lady of Oxford, on her shell-work, with great happiness of thought and expression.

The following lines, extracted from the Epistle to Mr. Talbot, are bold, nervous, and expressive.

‘Such were the scenes that charm'd thy amorous sight,  
 Those fields of joy, those gardens of delight!  
 Then peace and plenty whisper'd in the gales,  
 And stretch'd for Gallia's shore the friendly sails,  
 Then Britain's rocks o'erhung the stormy main,  
 And ev'n loud ocean roll'd betwixt in vain.  
 But lo, proud power, more fierce, more dreadful far,  
 At length unlocks the brazen gates of war,  
 Yields to the steeds of Havock's car the reins,  
 And giant Horror, fatal fiend! unchains,

G g 3

Whose

Whose thirsting vengeance in this dark sojourn.  
 For five long lustrums Heaven had doom'd to mourn :  
 The fatal fiend in thunders rushes forth,  
 Pierce as the tempests of his native north ;  
 Climbs the tall cliffs, and waves with horrid hand  
 His black broad banner o'er the bleeding strand :  
 The angry beacon fires, with silent dread  
 Beheld far-blazing on the mountain's head,  
 Th' expanded bosom of the deep deforms,  
 Roars in each surge, and swells the sounding storms.  
 Commerce and Science, hapless maids ! no more  
 Mount the swift bark, and sail from shore to shore :  
 They seek their ports ; alas, in vain ! for there  
 Dwells Death with War, and Famine with Despair :  
 Their towns they seek ; but there with sad surprize  
 They mark the towering battlements arise :  
 Lost to their fields, with hopes of peace, they fly,  
 Till camps and castles strike th'astonish'd eye ;  
 There for the woodland shade and crystal flood,  
 They mark the groves of steel and streams of blood :  
 The Harmonies unstirring their useless lyres,  
 And Art's fair empire o'er the realms expires.'

History would have required the author to have written, *three lustrums*, the interval between the last French war and the present : but perhaps the other number is more agreeable to the ear of poetry.

In the lines on the death of Lord Chatham, the following couplet is remarkable for its manliness of diction and sentiment :

' Vain is our fame, in vain is Britain brave,  
 If one death ruins, or one life can save.'

In the subsequent verses, taken from the same performance, the metaphor is perhaps too bold.

' May Heaven our Albion's fav'rite planet bear  
 Far from the path of Bourbon's blazing star !  
 That fatal comet, lights of Europe, shun,  
 By mad ambition whirl'd too near the sun ;  
 Portending plagues, and wing'd with fate, it flies,  
 And sweeps to swift destruction o'er the skies.

If we were inclined to mention any part of the collection in preference to the rest, we might, perhaps, fix our choice On Life, an Elegy, which is pathetic and beautiful throughout, particularly happy in its concluding sentiments, and, except two stanzas, which are an imitation of Mr. Gray, entirely new.

Our

Our author appears to have been no less favoured by the Latin than by the English Muse. His poem on Botany supplies us with an example :

' Jam jam ad purpurei violaria veris, ad ipsum  
Mente feror Pæstum, adque herbosa cacumina Baldi,  
Te duce, Pona, sequor, campoque potimur aprico,  
Naturæque ingens expanditur, ecce, volumen !  
Plurima miratus, quem florem et gramina cespes  
Quæ pariat video, et, quamvis exilibus, ortis  
Undique divinum tacitus lego numen in illis.'

Those who are unacquainted with Pona's Botanical Excursion over Mount Baldus, we refer to our author's long note on the passage.

We shall transcribe a few lines more from the same performance.

' Tu quoque, tu nostris studiis, rex magne Georgi,  
Atrides, doctosque, ex omni parte, benignâ  
Voce viros accerfis, et ardua cœpta capessi  
Dignaque rege jubes ; peregrinas quærere terras,  
Atque domum ex illis exotica dona referre  
Præcipis : olli auris australia littora tendunt  
Optatis ; peragrant loca devia, nullius antè  
Trita solo ; errantque audaces maria omnia circum,  
Et dulces gelidis quærunt in montibus herbas,  
Nix ubi sæva, geluque, et inertia frigora brumæ.  
Heroes tantos non vexit Jasonis Argo.  
Quas herbas reperit, quæ munera larga salutis  
Solander retulit prudens, et Bankius heros !  
Qui patriæ fines atque otia blanda relinquens,  
Scire potestates varias variasque figuras  
Malluit herbarum : mox et succedit uterque  
Forsterus : pariterque omnes telluris abunde  
Omniparentis opes, fœtusque, et vellera plusquam  
Aurea, et Indorum læti spolia ampla reportant.'

The loco-descriptive poem, the subject of which is a village in Glamorganshire, though written at an early period of life, is remarkable for its simplicity and polished numbers. The following extract is a striking proof of the assertion.

' Tho' here inventive Jones, great son of fame,  
Hath deign'd to mark no marble with his name,  
Tho' here no cloud-envelop'd structure stand  
That rose to heaven at Wren's sublime command ;  
Yet all around in glad surprise we view  
What talks the sons of industry pursue,  
View the neat charms of every pleasing part  
That boast a grace beyond the reach of art :  
Witness ye tufted groves, umbrageous bowers,  
Irriguous meads, and banks of fragrant flowers,

456. *Monro on the Means of Preserving the Health of Soldiers.*

Ye rich enclosures, and luxuriant plains,  
And cots, the palaces of peaceful swains.  
On these sweet scenes might Genius ever gaze,  
And lose in rapture all the power of praise,  
Might mark the landscape with amaze, and then  
Drop from his hand the pencil and the pen.'

The circumstance of Genius despairing to describe the place in poetry, or paint it on the canvass, is well conceived and happily expressed, the lines which we have marked in Italics are taken (which the author probably might not recollect) from Pope; but this, in a young writer, is very excusable.

Upon the whole, the collection of poems, of which this volume consists, does great honour to the author, more especially when considered as the production of a youth under nineteen years of age; who, in the notes subjoined, has shewn an extensive knowledge of various subjects, and a spirit of industry and application that cannot fail of recommending him to future attention.

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*Observations on the Means of Preserving the Health of Soldiers; and of conducting Military Hospitals. And on the Diseases incident to Soldiers in the Time of Service, and on the same Diseases as they have appeared in London. By Donald Monro, M. D. 2 Vols. 8vo. 8s. 6d. Boards. Murray.*

THE former edition of this work appeared in our Review for February, 1765. It then consisted only of one volume, but, on account of the observations which the author has since made, it is now extended to two. The additional materials are derived from cases which have occurred to Dr. Monro in St. George's hospital, and in private practice, for twenty-two years past; including the remarks of several practitioners who have served in our armies and navy in different parts of the globe, and which have been either published by the respective authors, or communicated by them to Dr. Monro.

The present edition is divided into five parts; in the first of which the author points out the means most likely to preserve both officers and soldiers healthy, when employed on different services, and in different climates. In the second, he considers particularly the manner of sitting up, providing, and conducting military hospitals, in different situations, and under different circumstances. In the third, he gives a short account of the health and diseases of the troops which were encamped at Coxheath, in the years 1778, and 1779. In the fourth, he treats of the diseases of those who came under his care in the military

military hospitals in Germany last war, and in the hospitals belonging to the camps in England, in the years 1778 and 1779. In this part he has minutely related the different methods of cure that he found to be most successful, both in Germany and in England, and likewise those which have been found to answer best in different parts of the world.

Dr. Monro observes, that in Germany he had not met with one person afflicted with the malignant ulcerated sore throat, and very few ill of the small pox, or venereal disorder, and therefore had mentioned those disorders very slightly; but having seen many ill of those complaints at Coxheath camp, he has considered them more particularly in this edition, with the view of rendering it more useful to the younger part of the medical military practitioners. The fifth part consists of a pharmacopœia, adapted to the use of military hospitals, to which the author's practice in them was chiefly confined.

Dr. Monro, has subjoined a Postscript, containing An Answer to Dr. Millar's Remarks and Tables, said to be Monthly Returns from the British Military Hospitals in Germany during the late War. As this affords a genuine account of some important facts, which appear to have been strangely misrepresented, we shall lay before our readers an extract from it.

‘ Since the last edition of this work was published, I accidentally met with a Treatise entitled, Observations on the Practice in the Medical Department of the Westminster General Dispensary; together with an arithmetical Calculation of the comparative Success of various Establishments for the Relief of the Sick, published in the year 1777, by Dr. John Millar, physician to the above named dispensary.

‘ Upon perusal, I was not a little surprised to find tables, said to be returns of the number of sick sent to the British general hospitals in Germany during the late war, and of the number of men who died in them; which the doctor, in his table shewing the proportion of deaths to the number of sick in different places, has made amount to more than one half; and on the faith of these fictitious returns has, in the end of his work, made some very severe and disingenuous remarks on the former edition of my Account of the Diseases of the Army, and on the conduct of the physical gentlemen employed on the German service during the late war. This surprised me the more, as Dr. Millar was an entire stranger to me; and, upon examination, I found that he was an equal stranger to all the physicians and surgeons who were employed on the German service.

‘ If Dr. Millar had confined himself to mere abuse and ill-natured remarks on my work, I should certainly have passed his observations unnoticed, and left the practice here recommended to have been approved of or condemned, as it might be found to deserve; and my own conduct in the military hospitals to have been justified by the physical gentlemen who were eye-witnesses of it, many of whom are now settled in London, and in different parts  
of

of England; conscious that illiberal ill-grounded reflections, generally in the end reflect discredit on their authors.

But the doctor having published counterfeited returns drawn up in the form of genuine, and having, every where he went, insinuated that he had them from Lord Granby's secretary, military officers, accustomed to regular returns, might (unless informed to the contrary) believe these to be true copies of the general hospital returns sent to lord Granby, and that of course the reflections made by the doctor were just; and therefore I could not pass his work unobserved, nor help endeavouring to do justice to myself, as well as to the other physicians employed on the German service; by proving that the doctor, from his entire ignorance of the subject he was writing upon, and of the routine of military hospital service, has allowed himself to be grossly imposed upon, by some malicious designing person (not lord Granby's secretary) who had no regard to truth, nor wished to do more good to the doctor's own character, than to the characters of those gentlemen he meant to hurt.

The tables of returns from the British military general hospitals in Germany, as published by Dr. Millar, are fictitious, and perhaps the most unfair and disingenuous that ever blotted paper.

The doctor's friend, the fabricator of these returns, has put in them the number of sick said to have been sent to the general hospital, and against it, not only all those who died in the general hospital, but all those likewise who died in the regimental hospitals, or in quarters, or were killed by the enemy; by which means he has made the dead list of the general hospital amount to a great number indeed; for the number of men who died in the regimental hospitals, and in quarters, exclusive of those who were killed by the enemy, was great; particularly in winter 1760 and 1761; for, on the breaking up of camp in the end of November 1760, the British troops were put into winter-quarters in the towns and villages of the bishopricks of Paderborn and Munster, where a putrid malignant fever and dysentery were raging among the poor inhabitants, which soon communicated themselves to the soldiers, and carried off great numbers: as a proof of which, I shall only observe, that the three battalions of guards, who were quartered in Paderborn, lost 69 men in their regimental hospitals, in the month of January; the first regiment 36—the second 14—and the third 19—which was a greater number than died in all the general hospitals at Paderborn, from the time of my arrival at that place in January, till the time of my leaving it in April. From the time the regiments left camp, the general hospital received no sick; so that all that were taken ill and died after this time, and till the army again took the field, died in the regimental hospitals.

To prevent its being alledged that I have done the doctor injustice, in saying that his returns were thus fabricated, I shall here give his own authority, being the copy of what he wrote to me in answer to a letter I sent him, begging to know on what authority the returns had been made out, and acquainting him that the returns were erroneous.—Dr. Millar, after refusing to name his author, adds,

“He foresaw that Dr. Monro was likely to be misled, by supposing the returns of dead to be confined to the hospitals; they contain the whole number, as well in quarters and in detached parties, as in grand and flying hospitals; and this he might have found  
expressly

expressly mentioned in the explanation of the tables." Dated Pall-mall, 17th of April 1777.

• How has the doctor explained his tables? which are so fabricated, as to make every person on perusing them believe, that the whole dead, there marked, died in the general hospital.

• He has mentioned that 800 were killed in the several great actions during the war; and alledged that about 500 died of their wounds. And then he has boldly asserted, that only 2500 were sick in quarters, and in flying and regimental hospitals during the war.

The number said to be killed in great actions, answers nearly to the returns printed in the London Gazette; but the number must have been much larger; for there is no notice taken in the Gazettes of those who were killed in the many skirmishes that happened during the war;—and as to the number of wounded, I can say nothing, as they were not under my care.

His mentioning that only 2500 men had been in the regimental hospitals shews the grossest ignorance of military affairs.—Had the doctor been the least acquainted with the routine of military hospitals, or given himself the least trouble to have been informed, he must have known that the number of sick that had been in the regimental hospitals, during the war in Germany, must have been at least ten times the number he names; and for these reasons, the successions of men admitted and discharged from regimental hospitals is quick, and in the time of service, in less than two years, most of the men in a regiment have been on the sick list, and many of them two, three, or four times. And while in Germany, the general hospital received no sick from the regiments while they were in winter-quarters; and when the army took the field, all the men on being taken ill, were either put into the sick tents in the rear of the regiments, or into houses appropriated for regimental hospitals in the rear, as was the case before the affair of Fillinghausen, in the year 1761; and after the affair of Williamsdall, in the year 1762; and the sick remained one, two, three, and sometimes more weeks, under the care of the regimental surgeons, before waggons could be got to transport them to the next general hospital, which was commonly twelve or thirteen, and sometimes thirty or forty miles in the rear of the army; so that scarcely any man was sent to the general who had not been in a regimental hospital before. And as there were often a great many who recovered, or died, in the regimental hospitals, before there was an opportunity of sending the sick to the general hospital, and a number of slight cases which did not require to be sent from camp, the number of sick who were in the regimental hospitals during a campaign, was always greater than the number sent to general hospitals.

In respect of the present edition of this work, it is sufficient to observe, that it contains a great number of judicious and valuable practical observations on various diseases; and therefore greatly merits the attention of all who are particularly concerned in that department of science.

Emma

Emma Corbet; or, *The Miseries of Civil War. Founded on some recent Circumstances which happened in America. By the Author of Liberal Opinions, Pupil of Pleasure, Shenstone Green, &c.* 3 Vols. Small 8vo. sewed. 7s. 6d. Baldwin.

**I**N these volumes, the design of the author seems to be, to delineate the various calamities resulting from civil war. The heroine of the work is formed upon the models of Clarissa and Eloisa; possessing, however, less prudery than one, and, perhaps, more delicacy than the other; at the same time that in point of literary composition she is hardly inferior to either of those characters. The hero is represented as a young man of elegant manners and ardent principles, attached to the interests of Britain; while the father of Emma Corbet is no less warmly the friend of America. Besides those, we also find a remarkable *neutral* character, or rather a dispassionate, travelled gentleman, who feels and argues rather as a philanthropist than a politician.—The brother of Emma is engaged in the service of America, where he is represented as having taken up arms in defence of his invaded property; while Mrs. Hammond, the hero's sister, is introduced in the character of an unfortunate young woman, separated from the man of her choice, who opposes the political maxims of her brother.

As a specimen of the work, we shall present our readers with an extract from a digression entitled, *A Military Fragment*.

#### ‘ T H E C A R B I N E S .

‘ \* \* \* \* \* Oh for the history of that wound ! said I, seeing a scar upon the cheek of the person appointed to shew me the hospital—Oh for a history of that wound !

‘ Not worth the telling, answered the man, pointing to the stump of his left thigh, as to a more important subject of curiosity. He took me into a different quarter of the building, which presented the lodgings of those who were pensioners. In each was a small bed, a chair, and a table. The attendant's name was Julius Carbine. At a door leading into one of the apartments he stopped; and then looked through an aperture, which commanded the room.

‘ The luckiest of all moments, said Julius—for brother Nestor will soon be at it, and it is a day of discipline. We will enter.

‘ Julius, said the owner of the apartment, as we entered, sit down with your company. The side of the bed was covered with a clean white cloth by a little girl who opened the door, and I had also a little girl with me, and we all sat down. It was actually the brother, and not the brother soldier only, to whom Julius introduced us. In their appearance there was a  
fra-



a fraternal familiarity, not so much consisting in the features and limbs which remained, as in the misfortunes which had happened to those invisible parts which lay scattered in different quarters of the globe.

Julius was the younger of the Carbines; and as he placed himself sideways upon the bed, and desired Carbine the elder (whose name was Nestor) to suspend the attack—he told his story.

We slept in the same cradle, and were nursed up for the service. Our little arms—

He flourished a stump which projected about four inches from the right shoulder—Our little arms—

But I have begun the matter wrong and prematurely, for before I relate the account which Carbine gave of himself, I should offer some description of his person, as well as that of his brother Nestor. It is the stump of Julius which reminds me of this.

Carbine the elder was the remnant of a noble figure, who in the uprightness of his youth must have risen six feet from the earth perpendicularly. He had the marks of about seventy years wearing in his face—allowing for the natural vigour of his form, the invasions of incident, time, and profession. The present stoop in his shoulders was favourable to the height, or rather to the want of height in his apartment. It is not without just cause that I called Nestor a remnant. Nature originally mixed up in him her fairest proportions. At the time I saw him he was a capital figure reduced. For instance, if you looked him in the face, or, more properly to speak, in the residue of his face, you will perceive, in his left cheek, a deep scarification, which boasted no sort of rivalry with the glorious embrowning of the other that had received no injury. Though Nestor himself said, “the whole cheek, in comparison with the half cheek, looked like an errant poltroon.” “It is a cheek,” cried he, “which seems to have done no duty; now here,” continued he, turning the other side to view with much triumph, “here are the signs of service.”

Both the Carbines, indeed, had served to some purpose. In point of honorary credentials there was little cause of jealousy. Nothing could be more equally divided than the mutual marks of brotherhood in bravery. Sorely battered were the outworks of both. It is worth while to observe how the matter was settled to their satisfaction and credit. The thigh of Julius became the victim of a parapet, but then Nestor was even with him when he had the honour to drop his left arm in the counter-scarp. But as if fortune did not imagine an arm, and that a left arm, a sufficient equivalent to a whole thigh, amputated at one decisive whizz by a cannon ball, she deprived Nestor of his right foot, which was left at the bottom of an entrenchment in Flanders. The young Carbine had the tract of a musquet visible at the extremity of his neck, and the bullets with which that

that musquet was charged flanted along the left jaw, carrying off some of the finest teeth in the world, and which, perhaps, are even yet to be seen in one of the fosses. To bring the military scale even, on the part of Julius, he has the good fortune to conceal under his hat (which upon account of that concealment he seldom wears) a respectable contusion, which, beginning at the left ear, swept away not only the greatest part of that, but all that grew in its path, from one end to the other; which distinguishing stroke is in honour of the baskin. But Julius had his unostentatious wounds too: his shirt covering no less than six, inasmuch that his bosom was crossed this way and that, direct and transverse, like a draught-board. I detected the flash of something like victory in the countenance of Julius, as he threw open his chitterlin, and opened his shirt-collar under pretence of too much heat: but Carbine the elder checked his brother's ambition by baring his right arm to his shoulder, (or rather begging me to bare it) and there discovering a masked battery of blows, which were a fair match for those in the breast of Julius.

Thus were the testimonies of their prowess participated; and if (said they) either of us could have boasted a less equal division, it would have been a blow too many for our friendship, and, perhaps, have bred ill blood betwixt us.

Here the fragment is torn

\*\*\*\*\* the veteran Carbines, after having platooned and pioneered it for a number of years, in the cause of their country, found at length, they could keep the field no longer.

They entered the Temple of Peace; but not quite on the footing of ordinary members. The senior Carbine privately enjoyed some small privileges, and the junior was in possession of the casualties, derivable from shewing the hospital to such as had the curiosity to survey it: and he hopped about with his ruins in a manner that engaged one's pity and admiration.

A second rent in the fragment,

\*\*\*\*\* Now Nestor was a man of inalienable affections. They were not to be subdued. The military passion was by no means dead in his bosom. The heart of the soldier was still visible in his little bed-chamber. There were to be seen, suspended from the walls, the battered corset that had covered his breast, and the firelock, whose iron mouth was almost worn out by the loadings. They were brightly burnished, and the nicest care taken to clean them weekly.

We meet in these volumes with many passages written in a pathetic strain; and, in general, the work discovers the same vivacity, and that natural flow of imagination, which we have formerly observed in the several productions of this ingenious author.

FOREIGN

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Auszüge aus den neuesten und besten militärischen Schriften, die Dressirung und Richtung des einzelnen Mannes sowohl als auch die Evolutions ganzer Bataillons und Regimenter betreffend, nebst einem Anhange Von der defensiven Schlachtordnung: or, Extracts from the newest and best Works relating to Military Subjects, the Training of single Men, and of whole Battalions and Regiments, with an Appendix concerning a defensive Order of Battle. 8vo. with 24 Cuts. Goettingen. (German.)*

IN a sensible preface prefixed to these useful extracts, lieutenant Meyer invites studious military officers to follow the example of some Hanoverian regiments, in forming regimental libraries at their joint expence; a measure which would enable them to accomplish what, from the very high price of capital works, maps, plans, and models, would probably prove too expensive for individuals. This hint we cannot help recommending to the attention of naval officers also; who would certainly derive a variety of interesting informations, advantages, and entertainments from small but well chosen ship's libraries, formed at the joint and proportionate expence of all the commissioned officers on board.

Plain and judicious extracts like these, here offered to military readers, will to proficientes often serve as useful succedanea for capital and expensive works, and to beginners as elementary introductions to their studies.

The instructions delivered under the first heads relate to the best method of training individuals; a matter of very great consequence and influence on the justness of the evolutions of battalions and regiments, and on the success of any military manoeuvre.

The second section shews the method of training battalions for all their situations and evolutions. All the rules here given are founded on mathematical principles. From single battalions he proceeds to apply these rules to the instructions for training regiments; and to illustrate this application and use by drawings.

The purpose of the new order of battle proposed in the appendix is to oppose to an attacking enemy a much heavier fire, than the usual order of battle could possibly admit. Instead of a strait line, the order of battle is broke into saliant and re-entering angles of 110 degrees; yet so as to preserve the same length with the former line: a change which would not only produce a crossing fire between the lines themselves, without any risk of their hurting one another; but also give the artillery placed between them in the re-entering angles, a kind of defence on its flanks. But in order to remedy the weakness of the saliant points, and to obviate the risk of their being attacked in flank, this order of battle ought never to be formed before the enemy actually begins the attack; and then, the author thinks, it may easily, instantaneously and without any disorder, be performed in the enemy's fight: nor would it be difficult to make a transition from this defensive order to an attack. In defending a post, each saliant angle ought to be strengthened with a *flèche*.

Johann

Johann Christian Fabricius, *Reise nach Norwegen, mit Bemerkungen aus der Natur Historie und Oekonomie*, or, John Christ. Fabricius's *Tour through Norway, with Observations relating to Natural History and Oeconomy*. 8vo. Hamburgh. (German.)

THE author of this valuable journey, a professor of oeconomy in the university of Kiel, solicited means and opportunities for acquiring a more intimate and intuitive acquaintance with the state of rural oeconomy and husbandry in the Danish dominions: and his petition was granted him, with a liberal support, by the Danish government.

The diary of his journey is drawn up in the taste of Linnæus, whose disciple the author has formerly been. Such subjects of natural history as occurred during his journey, have been noticed: a concise account has been given of the present state of trade and professions in Norway. The excessive wastes of forests is still continued, notwithstanding the laws enacted against this enormous abuse. Fisheries have of late become more laborious, as they must now be carried on at greater distances from the shore. The copper exported from Norway is here estimated at 5000 ship-pounds. The decrease of forests, the small number of people, and the high price of provisions, are so many reasons for which the Norwegians cannot sell their iron at so cheap a price as the Swedes and Russians; so that their trade in iron is chiefly confined to the Danish dominions. The great distances from towns force the country people to make most of the necessaries wanted for themselves. They have, therefore, very few trades and handicrafts people; and even chairs and shoes are often imported from Danzick and Lubeck. The nobility are not numerous; but the peasantry are entirely free, and of course happier than those of more cultivated countries.

In crossing the Sound, our author makes some sensible remarks on the new Swedish national dress, whose trifling advantages, in his opinion, will never compensate the constraint, and the nature of such a national distinction.

The new Swedish silver coin is already become exceeding scarce; and people are again forced to store up their expenditures till they amount to a bank-note. A bank-note of two-dollars of silver coin cannot now be changed into cash; for such sums as two dollars specie, are hardly to be found any where in the country.

The marble monument which had been erected before Frederickshall, where Charles XII. died, has been taken down at the request of the Swedish court.

The most considerable iron-works in Norway, are those at Larwig; they are said to produce per annum 3000 ship-pounds of bar-iron, and 2000 ship pounds of cast-iron. The silver-mine at Konigsberg produces nearly the value of 300,000 dollars in pure silver; and yet this mine cost annually 50 or 60,000 dollars more than it yields. The copper-mines in Norway are said to have produced since their beginning in 1644, in all, the value of 22 millions of rix dollars.

The commerce carried on at Drontheim consists in commissions for the Dutch. Bergen is said to contain 20,000 inhabitants; but has no manufactures, and its trade is still a passive one. Here we also meet with some account of the leprosy, and an hospital for lepers, who are considered as absolutely incurable, and of course receive no physic.

This book is well written; but poorly printed, and not illustrated with any copper-plates.

Essai

*zur Geschichte Simsons: or, on the History of Sampson, as recorded in the Book of Judges, Chap. 14—16. By John Christ. Will. Diederichs, Doctor of Philosophy, Part I. & II. 8vo. Goettingen. (German)*

AS the history of Sampson is liable to so many plausible objections, Dr. Diederichs has attempted to examine every difficulty; and to vindicate this part of the Bible from the imputations of impossibility and incredibility.

1. He begins with the lion slain by Sampson, and observes, that we are apt to over-rate the strength and terrors of lions; and that these dreadful animals have often been fought and conquered by single men; of which he quotes several authentic instances from Ludolf's *Hist. Æth.* and the *Gesta Dei per Francos*.

2. The three hundred foxes said to have been caught by Sampson, were, in our author's opinion, jackals, creatures nearly resembling foxes, but easily caught, and sometimes roaming about in herds of two hundred; as appears from the accounts of ten different travellers, consulted and quoted by him, particularly Belon, Busbequius, Kämpfer, Chardin, Gmelin, &c. and that jackals are not only to be met with in Cilicia, Mingrelia, &c. their native countries, but also in Palestine, he asserts on the authority of Hasselquist.

3. The jaw-bone with which a thousand Philistines were slain, the author accounts for by Sampson's amazing strength, and by the number of people he had with him: and as for the source, said to have sprung from that jaw-bone, he affirms, with several other learned commentators, that *לח* is the name of a particular place. Sampson's exclamation of his having slain a thousand men, he considers as a fragment of a psalm, or song of victory.

4. The very difficult passage, concerning the gates of Gaza: *על פני הברז*, he explains so as to make it signify that Sampson carried the city gates of Gaza to the top of a neighbouring high mountain, from which Hebron, notwithstanding its very great distance, might be desired.

5. As to the seat of Sampson's strength, and how he was deprived of it by the loss of his hair, Dr. Diederichs freely confesses that it cannot be accounted for from natural causes, and that he is rather inclined to deduce that effect from a special co-operation of Providence. He has, however, promised a third answer to this difficulty, which is to appear in the next part, where he will consider the whole of the history of Sampson, and its very high antiquity.

*Essai d'une Méthode générale propre à étendre les Connoissances des Voyageurs; ou Recueil d'Observations relatives à l'Histoire, à la Répartition des Impôts, au Commerce, aux Sciences, aux Arts, et à la Culture des Terres; le tout appuyé sur des Faits exacts, et enrichi d'Experiences utiles. Par M. Munier, Inspecteur des Ponts & Chaussées, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris.*

IN order to illustrate and exemplify a method fit for enlarging the sphere of observation and the views and knowledge of travellers, Mr. Munier has here published a very minute, elaborate, and instructive description of the province of Angoumois, in France; though he seems more intimately acquainted with the nature and present state of the several trades, and branches of commerce, than with the natural history, botany, and mineralogy of the country.

He begins his work with a concise history of the province, and of the ancient counts of Angoulême. The last of these counts, Francis, became in 1514, king of France; and raised the earldom to the rank of a duchy, which he assigned over to his mother during her life. In 1531 it was united to the crown, though it has sometimes been again granted to some favourite princes. The history of the counts and country is succeeded by that of the bishops; and an account of the different jurisdictions of the nobility. The whole number of the inhabitants is estimated at 270,000 persons.

The country is upon the whole, rather hilly; its soil in general lime, abounding in petrifications; and not very fertile; in a great measure destitute of pasturage grounds; and the inhabitants are, on account of immoderate and unequal taxes, discouraged and disabled from attempting to supply the natural defects of the soil by industry, ingenuity, and improvements. Some very useful improvements, however, they have made, well worth being noticed and adopted: an excellent method, for instance, of bleaching beeswax on stone-banks, which are not only more durable than these hitherto used; but also preserve the wax from melting even in the hottest seasons: this useful invention is said to have been already adopted in Spain, and at Marseilles.

The election of Angoulême sells nearly 35,000 barriques of wine, and 7,000 barriques of brandy per annum; which are chiefly exported by the way of the borough and the river Charente, and Rochefort, in English, Dutch, Hamburgh, and Swedish bottoms.

The paper manufactories which were formerly very considerable in this province, but which since the repeal of the edict of Nantz had decreased one half, are now visibly recovering, and yield no inconsiderable profits. The province has several manufactories of arms; the most important of these was established by the marquis of Montalembert, at Ruelle, on the Tourre; it is, perhaps, the best in the whole kingdom, and furnished with a variety of new invented and useful machinery; and was, in 1777, sold to the king.

The neighbouring islands, Rhé and Oleron, send great quantities of bay salt up the river Charente; which are by the inhabitants sold to the carriers from Limousin and Poitou, who bring them pipe-staves. The navigation on the Charente, the course of that river, its locks, &c. are minutely described by our author, who thinks it both practicable and useful to render the Charente navigable up to Civrai, to join it either with the Clain or the Vienne, and by their means to the Loire; an improvement which would open an inland navigation from Rochefort to the Loire, through the canal of Briare into the Seine, and to Paris.

The several objects and branches of rural oeconomy, grazing, agriculture, wine-culture, &c. the forges, mills, and manufactures of the province, are fully and minutely displayed. The Dutch are said to fetch lin-seed from Verlevil, a small town belonging to the duke of Rochefoucaud, to make oil of it to; sell that oil in France, and to gain more by it than the French can possibly get by the lin-seed of their own growth. A notable, though by no means a singular instance of Dutch improvements and industry!

## FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

*Fundamenta Geographiæ et Hydrographiæ Subterraneæ, ad Naturæ ductum posita a J. Guil. Baumer. 8vo. Gießæ.*

**A**N instructive and interesting work for mineralogy and general physic, founded on original observations made by the author in a great part of Germany, especially in Hesse and Thuringuen.

*De Erroribus Irenæi in determinanda Ætate Christi commentatur G. Christoph. Pisanski, Theol. D. &c. 8vo. Koenigsberg.*

It is well known that Irenæus affirms that Jesus Christ did not enter on his ministry as a teacher till the age of forty years; and that he was not crucified till at the age of fifty. This pretended evidence of Irenæus has by some infidels been used as a means for disputing the credibility of the Gospel. Several expedients were accordingly tried for reconciling the contradictions between St. Lucas and Irenæus. Dr. Pisanski thinks that Irenæus mistook Polycarp and other ancients, to whom he refers; and that, at any rate, he cannot possibly be opposed, and much less preferred, to the Evangelists, in point of credibility.

*Αγοία τοῦ Θεοῦ Judæorum Fidei credita, ex Rom. iii. 2, illustrat G. C. Pisanski, 8vo. Kenigsberg.*

After endeavouring to confute other explications of the text in question, Dr. Pisanski accedes to that old one, by which the *Αγοία Θεοῦ* are supposed to signify the canonical books of the Old Testament; and that, of course, the cōdex of the Old Testament has by the Jews been faithfully preserved and transmitted, without any adulteration, to the Christians.

*Conspectus Prælectionum Academicarum, continens Fundamenta Astronomiæ, Authore Daniele Melanderhjelm; Prof. Reg. Upsal. 8vo. Stockholm, Upsal, and Abo.*

Plain and concise elements of astronomy, whose physical part, and perhaps some more minute account of the eclipses, the author seems to have reserved for another volume.

*Des Comètes, par M. du Carla. P. I. & II. 8vo. Geneva.*

Should this work ever be completed, it would be a very voluminous system, raised on vague and arbitrary hypotheses.

*Observations Critiques et Philosophiques sur le Japon et les Japonais, 12mo. Paris.*

A short but judicious abstract of several voluminous descriptions of Japan; divided into fourteen chapters, and illustrated with some notes.

*Analyse critique des Faits Militaires de César, racontés par lui même par M. Davon. 12mo. Paris.*

Cæsar, who for so many ages, and by the most competent judges, has been generally admired and respected as one of the greatest men, and the greatest generals, is here at last critised, censured, and

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reviled

reviled as a poor arrant bungler in the art of war, and his Commentaries exploded as a most pitiful performance. But, take M. Davon's own words; for instance, his conclusion of his remarks on the siege of Alexia: " Cette dernière action peint très-bien les Gaulois, et prouve elle seule, que ce peuple, si loué par l'orgueil des Romains, étoient des vraies brutes. Quant à César lui-même, que les modernes étudient comme le premier modèle dans la science militaire, je crois, selon mon projet, avoir suffisamment démontré sa parfaite ignorance par cette analyse critique de la conquête des Gaules."

*De novo Ducatus Oldenburgico. Auth. G. D. Hoffman, &c. 4to. Tubingæ.*

On December 16, 1773, that part of Holstein, which had till then been possessed by the great duke and presumptive heir of the imperial crown of Russia, was ceded to the king of Denmark in exchange for the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst; which were at the same time ceded, under certain conditions, to his serene highness, bishop Frederick Augustus of Lubeck; and both counties afterwards united and raised to the rank of a German duchy, in 1778, in consequence of the Russian and Danish negotiations at Vienna. The author observes that by this transaction, the Protestant states of Germany have lost a powerful support, in the imperial prince of Russia.

*Mechanica Fluidorum, sive de Equilibrio et Motu Corporum Tractatus, in Academicis Praelectionibus suis expositus, A. D. Octaviano Cametta, &c. quibus eighteen Plates. Florence.*

Both demonstration and experiments, theory and practice, are here happily joined, and judiciously applied.

*Robinson Crusoe. Nouvelle Imitation de l'Anglois. Par M. Feutry, &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris.*

An abstract of the English book, made on the late Mr. J. J. Rousseau's ideas; and greatly approved, this being already the third edition.

*Observations d'un Sourd et Muet; sur le Cours Élémentaire d'Éducation des Sourds & Muets qu'a publié cette Année M. l'Abbé Deschamps. Sixty-six pages in 12mo. Paris.*

The performance of a young man, Desloges, who has been deaf and dumb, ever since the seventh year of his age; and who defends the method of M. l'Abbé de l'Épée, his tutor, against the insinuations of a rival teacher of deaf and dumb people, M. l'Abbé Des Champs, who in a late publication had, in our author's opinion very erroneously and inconsistently censured and condemned the use of signs. He, therefore, undertakes to confute the abbé by facts, and an appeal to his own experience.

*Mémoire sur l'Acier, dans lequel on traite des différentes Qualités de ce Métal, de la Forge, du bon employ, & de la trempe. Par Jean Jacques Perret, Coutelier, &c. 8vo. Paris.*

The memoir of this learned and acute cutler has obtained the prize proposed by the society of arts at Geneva, and abounds with excellent and practical information.

MONTHLY



## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## P O L I T I C A L.

*An impartial History of the War in America, between Great Britain and her Colonies, from its Commencement to the End of the Year 1779: 8vo. 7s. 6d. Faulder.*

**T**HIS volume is divided into two parts, in the former of which the author recites the discovery of America by Columbus; giving afterwards a concise view both of that continent and the West India islands, with a short narrative of the memorable events and revolutions of the British colonies in North America, from the days of queen Elizabeth to the present time. The second part begins with a view of the question in dispute relative to the colonies. The author next proceeds to relate the history of this unfortunate contest, which, we think, he delineates, in general, with great fidelity. The work is ornamented with many engravings of British and American commanders, &c. but whether the greater part of them be just resemblances, we leave to be determined by others.

*Historical and political Reflections on the Rise and Progress of the American Rebellion, 8vo. 3s. sewed. Wilkie.*

This pamphlet recites the causes of the rebellion, the means by which it has grown to its present maturity, with the state of American parties, and the disposition of the colonists. After a variety of reflections on these subjects, the author declares it as his opinion, that the only solid means of union with America is to allow her a representation in the British parliament.

*Plain Truth: or, a Letter to the Author of Dispassionate Thoughts on the American War, 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wilke.*

The author of the Dispassionate Thoughts had maintained, that we ought to abandon America to the independence for which she contends, rather than to assert her subordination to the British legislature by a war, which, besides being extremely expensive, may entirely alienate the affections of the colonists from us. This opinion, however, the author of the present pamphlet refutes by many forcible arguments, demonstrating the necessity of continuing the war till America shall be reduced to reasonable terms.

*Mr. E—B—'s Answer to his own Speech of 11th of February, 1780. With Mr. F—'s Animadversions thereon. 8vo. 1s. White.*

This fictitious oration is supposed to be delivered in a tavern, in the presence of Mr. C—F—, between whom and the speaker a conversation is held before and after the rehearsal. The whole is a jeu d'esprit not destitute of humour.

*A plain and succinct Narrative of the late Riots and Disturbances in the Cities of London and Westminster, and Borough of Southwark. By William Vincent. 8vo. 1s. Fielding and Walker.*

The tumults which form the subject of this Narrative were the most outrageous that occur in the whole British history; and there is reason for suspecting that they were not entirely the effect of fanaticism, or of a blind popular phrenzy, but were at least abetted by the secret instigation of some determined enemies of the state. Happy it is, that by the vigilance and exertion of government, the devastation was checked in its career. How much more happy, had it not proceeded to effect the destruction of that invaluable literary treasure which perished with the house of one of the most illustrious characters in the nation!—To the narrative of these riots is prefixed an abstract of an act passed in favour of the Roman Catholics.

*A Narrative of the Proceedings of Lord George Gordon, and the Persons assembled under the Denomination of the Protestant Association, from their last Meeting at Coach-makers Hall, to the final Commitment of his Lordship to the Tower. 8vo. 1s. Wallis.*

This Narrative is the same in substance with the preceding. Subjoined to it are the petition presented to his Majesty in behalf of the Roman Catholics, and an abstract of the act of parliament passed in their favour.

*Considerations on the late Disturbances, by a Consistent Whig. 8vo. 6d. Almon.*

The author of these Considerations endeavours to evince, that the Protestant religion was totally unconcerned in the late disturbances; that the petition presented by the association is far from being generally approved; and that the late act in favour of the Roman Catholics has either not been properly represented to the people, or been misunderstood. He infers from all those considerations, that neither justice, nor sound policy can justify the repeat of the act. Those who will not coincide with the author in this sentiment, may, however, be fully satisfied with the amendment to that act, which is now under the deliberation of parliament.

*Fanaticism and Treason: or, a Dispassionate History of the Rise, Progress, and Suppression of the Rebellious Insurrection in June, 1780. 8vo. 2s. Kearsly.*

This account of the late tumults is preceded by a comparative retrospect of the religious disturbances in the reign of Charles I. and of the riots in Scotland last year, occasioned by a groundless alarm that an unlimited toleration of popery was intended by government.

The recital of the late commotions corresponds with the other narratives on the subject, but contains a more particular history of the progress of the bill which has given birth to the Protestant association;

Association; and the author has sometimes interspersed the detail with illustrative or conjectural reflexions: which renders this performance more entertaining, as well as instructive, than several other publications on the same subject.

*Reflections on the Opposition made by the Protestants to an Act lately passed in Favour of the Roman Catholics.* 8vo. 1s. T. Payne.

In this tract, the author having refused to sign the petition against the late act in favour of the Roman Catholics, assigns his reasons for his refusal; observing, that religious toleration is the natural right of all men; that Roman Catholics are by no means either so ignorant, so superstitious, so bigoted, or so cruel, as they were in former ages; and that, as they are now altered in their character and conduct, we ought to alter our opinion of them, and our behaviour towards them. He suggests a variety of other considerations, in vindication of his refusing to sign the petition, which are reasonable and proper; but he has thrown them together in a loose and immethodical manner.

## D I V I N I T Y.

*A Sermon upon religious Zeal, preached in Greenwich Church, June 11, 1780, and addressed to every Protestant Subject in the Realm. By Andrew Burnaby, D.D. Vicar of Greenwich.* 8vo. 6d. T. Payne.

This discourse was preached in consequence of the late insurrections in and near the metropolis. It was written in haste, on an extraordinary emergency, and therefore is not a laboured, or an elegant composition. It is, however, a seasonable and useful sermon, calculated to give the audience and the reader a proper notion of religious zeal; to shew them the mischiefs occasioned by a combination of plunderers and incendiaries; to remind them of the mild, the charitable, the pacific nature of the religion they profess; and to convince them, 'that the indulgence granted to the Roman Catholics by the late act, could never become formidable to the Protestant cause.'

*A Sermon preached at South Audley Chapel, on April 16, and at St. Laurence's Church, Brentford, on May 21, 1780. To which is prefixed, a Poem upon the Charity, for the Benefit of the Humane Society.* By Henry Charles Christian Newman. 8vo. 1s. Rivington.

An animated discourse, recommending the noble design of the Humane Society, from these words of the Psalmist. 'Then the waters had overwhelmed us, the stream had gone over our souls.' Psal. cxxiv. 4.—To this sermon the author has prefixed a poetical paraphrase on St. Paul's description of charity.

*Catechisme de la Bible.* 12mo. Wagstaffe.

A short account, by question and answer, of the most remarkable occurrences recorded in the five books of Moses, with an explanation of the Decalogue, &c,

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The author might have omitted some scholastic distinctions, and some antiquated notions concerning types and emblems, without any detriment.—Works of this nature should treat of nothing but what is plain and simple.

## P O E T R Y.

*A Poetical Epistle to his Excellency George Washington, Esq. Commander in Chief of the Armies of the United States of America, from an Inhabitant of the State of Maryland. To which is annexed, a short Sketch of General Washington's Life and Character. 4to. 2s. 6d. Dilly.*

The poem before us is (as we are informed in an advertisement prefixed to it), the genuine production of a native of America, who is connected and intimate in the family of that great man. We were not, therefore, surprised or disappointed at not meeting with any extraordinary degree of poetical merit in the composition, as poetry, and all the polite arts are as yet but in their infancy in America; and though we doubt not but in process of time, and perhaps within a few years, they may make no inconsiderable figure in the world of literature, they are at present of very little weight or consequence in it: the following lines therefore are as good as any we could expect from the other side the Atlantic.

‘ Let Britain, hapless Britain! curse the hour,  
When, urg’d by pride and insolence of pow’r,  
She, stercorally deaf to ev’ry just petition,  
Thought with a frown to “look us to submission?”  
Alas, poor Britain! thus thy Sandwich spoke,  
And eager senates caught the fatal joke;  
Each pension’d scribbler draws his servile pen,  
And proves Americans are hardly men;  
Of knaves and dastards the contemptuous names  
Amuse the fawning circles at St. James,  
And with this pray’r each courtly pulpit rings,  
“Heav’n spare not rebels to the best of kings!”

The short sketch, however, of general Washington’s life and character, which is subjoined to this poem, makes us amends for the very indifferent verses of his panegyrist. Lightly as we may think of the *bard*, we have a high opinion of his *hero*. General Washington is a character which will always, with every impartial mind, be, all circumstances considered, very respectable. What his friend, the author of this narrative, has recorded of him, is, as may be collated from various accounts, strictly true. The little history of his life which we here meet with, is not ill written, and may give us some imperfect idea of this self-taught general. We shall therefore select a part of it, for the entertainment of our readers.

‘ As he always refused to accept of any pecuniary appointment for his public services, no salary has been annexed by Congress to his important command, and he only draws weekly for the expenses of

of his public table and other necessary demands. General Washington having never been in Europe, could not possibly have seen much military service when the armies of Britain were sent to subdue us; yet still, for a variety of reasons, he was by much the most proper man on this continent, and probably any where else, to be placed at the head of an American army. The very high estimation he stood in for integrity and honour, his engaging in the cause of his country from sentiment and conviction of her wrongs, his moderation in politics, his extensive property, and his approved abilities as a commander, were motives which necessarily obliged the choice of America to fall upon him. That nature has given him extraordinary military talents will hardly be controverted by his most bitter enemies; and having been early actuated with a warm passion to serve his country in the military line, he has greatly improved them by unwearied industry, and a close application to the best writers upon tactics, and by a more than common method and exactness: and, in reality, when it comes to be considered that at first he only headed a body of men entirely unacquainted with military discipline or operations, somewhat ungovernable in temper, and who at best could only be styled an alert and good militia, acting under very short enlistments, unclothed, unaccoutred, and at all times very ill supplied with ammunition and artillery; and that with such an army he withstood the ravages and progress of near forty thousand veteran troops, plentifully provided with every necessary article, commanded by the bravest officers in Europe, and supported by a very powerful navy, which effectually prevented all movements by water; when, I say, all this comes to be impartially considered, I think I may venture to pronounce, that general Washington will be regarded by mankind as one of the greatest military ornaments of the present age, and that his name will command the veneration of the latest posterity.

I would not mention to you the person of this excellent man, were I not convinced that it bears great analogy to the qualifications of his mind. General Washington is now in the forty-seventh year of his age; he is a tall well-made man, rather large-boned, and has a tolerably genteel address: his features are manly and bold, his eyes of a bluish cast and very lively; his hair a deep brown, his face rather long and marked with the small-pox; his complexion sun-burnt and without much colour, and his countenance sensible, composed, and thoughtful; there is a remarkable air of dignity about him, with a striking degree of gracefulness: he has an excellent understanding without much quickness; is strictly just, vigilant, and generous; an affectionate husband, a faithful friend, a father to the deserving soldier; gentle in his manners, in temper rather reserved; a total stranger to religious prejudices, which have so often excited Christians of one denomination to cut the throats of those of another; in his morals irreproachable; he was never known to exceed the bounds of the most rigid temperance: in a word, all his friends and acquaintance universally allow, that no man ever united in his own person a more perfect alliance of the virtues of a philosopher with the talents of a general. Candour, sincerity, affability, and simplicity, seem to be the striking features of his character, till an occasion offers of displaying the most determined bravery and independence of spirit.

The whole account of Washington's life, employment, and character before the unhappy contest between England and America, as related in this *Sketch*, is both curious and interesting.

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As such, without regard to cause or party, we recommend it to public attention.

*Ode to Speculation. A Poetical Amusement for Batheaston Villa.*  
By the rev. William Tasker. 4to. 6d.

Speculation is, in our opinion, but an awkward subject to write verses on. Mr. Tasker, however, who is no contemptible poet, has made the best of it: this being one of the most agreeable sprigs of myrtle that has sprung from Mrs. Miller's fragrant urn for some time past.

*An Ode to the Memory of the right rev. Thomas Wilson, late Lord Bishop of Sodor and Man; by the rev. W. Tasker, A. B.* 4to. 1s.

This Ode contains some very pretty lines in memory of one of the best bishops that have done honour to the mitre for some centuries past; in the last stanza are the following, recording the longevity of this good and pious patriarch, which may serve as a specimen of the author's poetical talents.

' To thee, pure subject of my song ! were given  
His choicest favours : thine were length of years,  
Each joy which self-applauding conscience bears ;  
Reflection's golden-imag'd train,  
Which banish every mental pain,  
While in pity to frail man,  
By thy example taught, and precepts sage,  
To thee was stretch'd life's narrow span,  
Protracted to a patriarch's age.  
At placid eve, e'en like the gently setting sun,  
Thy finish'd course of earthly pilgrimage was run ;  
When like a ripen'd sheaf of corn,  
Mature in heavenly works, thou to thy grave wast borne ;  
Destin'd completion of thy birth,  
Thy mortal part mix'd with its parent earth.—  
Tho' dead the man, no death the saint shall find,  
But in the living page inspire mankind :  
Celestial truth shall from his ashes rise,  
On Jesse's sacred branch aspiring to the skies.'

*The Deserted City. A Poem.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Newbery.

There is no reason, as the author of this no doubt very wisely concluded, why a good poem should not be written on a *Deserted City* as well as on a *Deserted Village*; the only question is, *Quid valeant bumeri*? whether talents and abilities to rival a *Goldsmith* are so easily to be met with; certain it is, that the piece before us is by no means of the same texture, being, to say the truth, one of the poorest performances which we have reviewed for some time past, without the least pretensions to any poetical merit; as the reader will see by the following lines, where our author thus addresses the goddess Liberty.

' Liberty !

' Liberty ! thou fantastic, fleeting shape !  
 That, in a land call'd free, you should escape !  
 We know thee not, except thy form divine,  
 Which thou assumest vainly proud to shine.  
 To mock our grasp and torture us the more,  
 Coquettish like, you now have fled our shore.  
 'Cross th' Atlantic thy vent'rous path I trace ;  
 Though thither fledst thou with so swift a pace :  
 My sight still marks you in your blest domain,  
 With honour, glory walking in your train.  
 Thou wanton ! yes, wherever such be found,  
 You're instant seen to tread that happy ground.  
 And nothing will thy wand'ring steps impede :  
 When they are gone, you follow then with speed.  
*This, this is why you leave our desert isle.*—

The whole is of a piece with this short specimen, without poetry, sense, or even grammar ; it is, indeed, infinitely beneath and unworthy of all criticism, and *this is why* (to use our poet's phrase) we shall say no more about it.

*The Ascension, a Poem.* By the rev. James Atkins, M. A. 4to: 6d. Rivington.

The author of this poem acquaints us in an advertisement prefixed to it, that it was made as a trial for Mr. Seaton's prize last year in the university of Cambridge, which prize he did *not* obtain. We should have been much surprised, indeed, if he *had*, for the poem, as Mr. Atkins thinks proper to call it, is a very indifferent one. It is written in a strange and uncommon measure, and which alone, had it possessed every other merit with regard to sentiment, imagery, &c. must have sunk it into oblivion : It opens thus,

' The Son I sing returning  
 From earth to heaven, after  
 The vengeance bearing, doom'd to  
 Mankind, till God recall'd him.'

A little after, speaking of the rebellious spirits, whom our Saviour routed, our author tells us, that

' Around him soon these spirits  
 Their snares belet, and practis'd  
 Whatever hell could counsel  
 To over-reach or frighten.  
 The seed of Abraham also,  
 Whom unsuspecting Satan  
 Disloyal turn'd, united  
 In bitterest hatred, mischief  
 On mischief heaping, even  
 As like the worst to end him.'

What Mr. Atkins can mean by *even as like the worst* to end him, we cannot possibly comprehend, any more than when

' the angels Raphael  
 And Gabriel finding Jesus

Among

Among the saints alighted  
To all invisible only  
Himself, and *whispering* told him  
What God commanded, —

How the angels could see Jesus, or find him when he was *invisible*, and why they should be obliged to *whisper* before him, we cannot easily conceive. Towards the conclusion of this rhapsody we are informed, that on an April morning

'Awake the birds fit *straining*  
On every thorn, each wildly  
Its *utmost* song.' —

On which piece of unintelligible nonsense we shall only observe, that if this is the *utmost* song which Mr. Atkins can *strain*, he had much better not attempt to *strain* or to *sing* at all.

*Eugenio; or the Man of Sorrow. A Legendary Tale.* 4to. 12.  
Wilkie.

This Man of Sorrow, as the author styles himself, is, we are informed in the title-page, a young gentleman of seventeen; we are not, therefore, much surprised to find no great poetical merit in the composition at such an early period of life; it was not, indeed, to be expected; we may discover, notwithstanding, in this piece, some marks of a good understanding, extreme sensibility, and a feeling heart. As the poem contains nothing but a plain narrative of common events, there is no reason why it should be called a legendary tale. That the writer is not very well acquainted with measure, or harmony, our readers will see by the following short quotation. When speaking of his patron, our author says:

'He led me to a spacious mansion, where  
Hospitality had long fix'd her seat  
Affluence and content combined there  
To make superior happiness complete.'

In this stanza, the second and third verses *ball* miserably; such poetry as this (and in the whole performance there is scarce any thing better), may pass well enough in manuscript, and gain the approbation of partial friendship; but it is by no means fit for public inspection.

*Poems on various Subjects; selected to enforce the Practice of Virtue.*  
By Thomas Tomkins. 12mo. 2s. Wallis.

This is a kind of literary catchpenny, being only a small volume of bits and scraps from Pope, Parnell, Thomson, Goldsmith, &c. &c. which, after the variety of collections of the same nature already made, seems rather unnecessary.



## MISCELLANEOUS.

*Remarks upon the Eighth Edition of the Second Volume of Mr. Warton's History of English Poetry.* See. Mr. Payne and Son.

This is a feasible attempt to prove, that the poems ascribed to Rowley are genuine. The writer affirms, that Mr. Warton's narrative on this subject is by no means exact; that his quotations are faithful: that his external arguments are far from being satisfactory, his internal neither fair nor conclusive: that Chatterton was not equal to the composition of such poems, either by his natural or his acquired abilities: in a word, that Mr. Warton's system throughout is not supported by a single argument that holds good, or a single fact that may not be questioned. It is difficult to follow this author minutely through all his captious objections to Mr. Warton's criticisms on the subject. We must observe in general, that he does not seem to comprehend the force and nature of Mr. Warton's arguments. Among many others, the following decisive argument used by that writer against the authenticity of these poems, he either misrepresents or misunderstands: 'Those who have been conversant in the works even of the best of our old poets well know, that one of their leading characteristics is inequality. In these writers, splendid descriptions, ornamental comparisons, poetical images, and striking thoughts occur but rarely: for many pages together they are tedious, profane, and uninteresting. On the contrary, the poems before us are every where supported: they are throughout poetical and animated. They have no imbecillities of style or sentiment. Our old English bards abound in unnatural conceptions, strange imaginations, and even the most ridiculous absurdity. But Rowley's poems present us with no incongruous combinations, no mixture of manners, institutions, customs, and characters. They appear to have been composed after ideas of discrimination had taken place; and when even common writers had begun to conceive on most subjects with precision and propriety.' Our caviller, for want of that critical taste and penetration which alone are necessary for the discussion of this controversy, has either totally omitted, or but superficially considered, these very judicious observations. On the whole, we are of opinion, that this question has been long ago decided; and we think with Mr. Warton and the world, that these poems were not written by Rowley, but forged by Chatterton.

## L A W.

*A Table or Chronological Index to the Books of Reports of the Determinations in the several Courts of Judicature in England,* by Edward Brooke. 10s. 6d. Brooke.

A table of this description has been long wanting. The present one, which is apparently constructed upon the plan of Dr. Priestley's

**Priestley's Chart of Biography**, exhibits not only a very laudable attention to the younger branches of the profession of the law, but is a strong instance of the genius and judgment of its author. It affords, in an obvious manner, a very complete view of all the authors who have reported our judicial decisions, from the beginning of the fourteenth century, to the present year, 1780. By this means, we are not only furnished with references to all those who have reported the same cases, but, the time when any case was determined being known, it immediately points out the authors who have reported it, and the judges under whose authority it was determined. — As the use of such an index is too apparent to need either comment or observation, we cannot doubt of its receiving that encouragement which it deserves.

It is proper to inform our readers that this ingenious publication is divided horizontally into four large columns, each in length describing the period of a hundred years.

Again, each column is perpendicularly divided into a hundred parts, each representing the space of a year. Immediately over each column is placed a scale, divided into years, answering to the division of the column; on which are set down the years of each king, opposite to the date of the year; and betwixt both, according to the time of their creation, the names of the chief justices of the King's Bench and Common-Pleas, and chief barons; and from 1601, those of the chancellors and lord-keepers are added; distinguishing likewise when the great seal was put in commission; the whole extracted from Dugdale and other authorities.

The table being thus divided, the period to each reporter is shewn by a line drawn within the column, corresponding with the several divisions of it.

The equity reporters are arranged at the bottom of each column, presenting at one view a series of the decisions of the court of Chancery, and of such of the determinations in parliament as have been published.

To render this table still more perspicuous, it is coloured; variously distinguishing the several kings reigns.

### MISCELLANEOUS.

*Biographical Memoirs of extraordinary Painters*, 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Robson.

In an advertisement prefixed to these Memoirs, and supposed to be written by the editor, we are informed that, 'it was the design of the writer to exhibit striking objects both of nature and art, together with some sketches of human life and manners, through a more original medium than those usually adopted in the walk of novel writing and romance.' We cannot, however, discover, (in spite of what the editor seems to insinuate) any extraordinary

traordinary knowledge of life and manners, or any great originality in this performance. There may notwithstanding, for aught we know, be much hidden wit and humour in it, but the line of our understanding is not, we must acknowledge, long enough to fathom the depth of it. The book contains the lives, characters, and exploits of some eminent painters, who never existed, such as Aldrovandus Magnus, Andrew Guelph, Og of Bafan, Sucrewaffer of Vienna, Blunderbuffiana, and Watersouchy. These our author engages in a series of trifling adventures, not very interesting, and displays throughout the work an awkward affectation of humour and pleasantry, and no small portion of descriptive verbosity.

The following short specimen, extracted from the life of Sucrewaffer, may be sufficient to give our readers an idea of the whole, and to justify our opinion of it.

‘ Sucrewaffer was bound apprentice to an uncle of his mother, who painted heraldry for the Imperial court, and his brother was promoted to the desk in his room. Sucrewaffer took great delight in his new situation, and learnt, with success, to bestow due strength on a lion’s paw, and give a courtly flourish to a dragon’s tail. His eagles began to be remarked for the justness of their proportions and the neatness of their plumage; in short, an Italian painter, by name Insignificanti, remarked the delicacy of his pencil, and was resolved to obtain him for his scholar. The youth, finding himself in a comfortable habitation, with a kind uncle, who was in a thriving way, and who offered him a share in his business when the time of his apprenticeship should expire, expressed no great desire to place himself under the tuition of Insignificanti; but as that painter had acquired a very splendid reputation, and was esteemed exceedingly rich, his parents commanded him to accept the offer, and Sucrewaffer never disobeyed. He remained two or three years with his master, which he employed in faithfully copying his works; generally small landscapes, with shepherds and sheperdeses feeding their flocks, or piping under Arcadian shades. These pieces pleased the world in general and sold well, which was all Insignificanti desired, and Sucrewaffer had no other ambition than that of his master. The greatest harmony subsisted between them till three years were expired.

‘ About this time the princess Dolgoruki, then at the court of Vienna, selected Insignificanti and his pupil to paint her favourite lap-dog, whose pendent ears and beautifully curling tail seemed to call loudly for a portrait. Insignificanti, before he began the picture, asked his pupil, with all the mildness of condescension, Whether he did not approve his intentions of placing the dog on a red velvet cushion. Sucrewaffer replied gently, that he presumed a blue one would produce a much finer effect. His master, surprized to find this difference of opinion, elevated his voice, and exclaimed, “ Aye, but I propose adding a gold fringe, which shall display all the perfection of my art; all the feeling delicacy of my pencil; but, hark you! I desire you will abstain from spoiling this part of the picture with your gross touch, and never maintain again that blue will admit of half the splendor of red.” These last words were pronounced

nounced with such energy, that Sucrewasser laid down his pencil, and begged leave to quit his master; who soon consented, as he feared Sucrewasser would surpass him in a very short space of time. The young man was but coolly received by his parents, who chided him for abandoning his master; but when they perceived his performances sold as well as before this rupture, their anger ceased, and they permitted him to travel to Venice, after having bestowed on him their benediction with the greatest cordiality.

*Remarks and Conjectures on the Voyage of the Ships Resolution and Discovery, in Search of a Northerly Passage from Kamtschatka to England, after the Death of Capt. James Cook. 8vo. 1s. Bew.*

The author of these Remarks is of opinion that the ships were too late of quitting Kamtschatka to be able to accomplish the north-east passage before the return of summer. He therefore thinks, that if they proceeded on that enterprize, they must have wintered in Siberia, Nova Zembla, or Lapland. He also describes the other probable courses they may have taken; in respect to one of which, according to late accounts from Macao, his conjecture is confirmed. Whatever difficulties may attend the voyage, the author is fully of opinion that the north-east passage is practicable; and he even offers to accomplish it, with the assistance of hardy men who have been accustomed to the Greenland seas, if the first lord of the admiralty would countenance the expedition, by letting the adventurers have two of his Majesty's bomb ketches, and other necessary aid. So far as we can judge from these Remarks and Conjectures, the author seems to be a man of geographical knowledge, experience, and resolution.

*Essays on Friendship and Old Age. By the Marchioness De Lambert. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Doddsley.*

These beautiful Essays, at the same time that they discover an amiable sensibility of heart, abound with such ingenious and philosophical reflections as might do honour to any writer. They are said to be translated from the French by a lady, who has prefixed to the version a letter to William Melmoth, esq. accompanied with some poetical stanzas, on his omitting the name of the Marchioness de Lambert, in his account of the celebrated modern writers on friendship.

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